National Library of Canada
Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Canadian Theses Service
Services des thèses canadiennes

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

CANADIAN THESES
THÈSES CANADIENNES

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

Canada

NL-339 (r.86/06)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

MENTORS AND THE INDUCTION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

by

© JOHN CARRUTHERS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL 1986

Permission has been granted to the National Library of Canada to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author (copyright owner) has reserved other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her written permission.

L'autorisation a été accordée à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur (titulaire du droit d'auteur) se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation écrite.

ISBN 0-315-32618-2

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR JOHN CARRUTHERS

TITLE OF THESIS MENTORS AND THE INDUCTION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED FALL 1986

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(SIGNED) J. Carruthers

PERMANENT ADDRESS:

88 HASTINGS ROAD,

FRANKSTON, VICTORIA 3199,

AUSTRALIA

DATED 29 July 1986

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled MENTORS AND THE INDUCTION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS submitted by JOHN CARRUTHERS in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

Eugene W Ratsoy
Supervisor

J J Berger

D F Treagust

Wm Hunter

Dave E. Hore Ed D
External Examiner

Date 29 July 1986

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated with love and gratitude to my sister

Audrey Elizabeth Carruthers

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the advantages and disadvantages of having a mentoring system available for such teachers in their first year of teaching. Data collection was achieved mainly by questionnaire, of which more than 90 percent were returned. The total number of participants was 102 of whom 14 were interviewed. There were seven problem statements which were examined from the viewpoints of three teacher groups, two sex groups, two age groups and, finally, three location groups.

The first and second problem statements were answered using Likert scale responses to potential problems for beginning teachers. These potential problems were presented under six areas of adjustment which the respondents would have to face. The remaining five problem statements were dealt with from responses to open-ended questions in the rest of the questionnaire.

In adjusting to the school system, second and first year teachers appeared to have had greater difficulty than interns and females seemed to have had more trouble than males. In adjusting to the school, differences were encountered among the three teacher groups. Differences were uncovered in all types of subgroups in dealing with the adjustment to the new role.

No matter the perspective from which it was viewed, the most popular helpers were always fellow teachers. This was in accord with the literature. However, this study found that the next three most popular helpers were all superordinates and these, in sum, matched the fellow teachers. This was not in accord with the literature which suggested superordinates were avoided as they were perceived as threats by novice teachers.

Despite the findings from the earlier part of the questionnaire in which intern teachers claimed that discipline was not a major problem for them, when asked for actual critical

events, intern teachers joined second and first year teachers in ranking discipline as the major problem area faced in their initial year. In the adjustment to the classroom, teacher category and location group were detected as variables of influence in the problems encountered.

All subgroups assessed the stage of their mentor association as lying between 3 and 4 on the mentor scale where 0 meant **Did not exist** and 4 meant **Was fully operational**.

Mentor qualities desired by proteges in their mentors seemed to have been related to the sex of the participants. All subgroups reported favourably on the advantages gained from mentor associations and even more favourably on the usefulness of a mentor association in the first year of teaching.

The main conclusions were that beginning teachers value mentor associations highly. Intern teachers had a very much more gentle introduction to the teaching profession from those who went straight into the classroom as full time teachers. This was probably due to the influence of supervising teachers. The internship program in Alberta is still in its first year and, essentially, the program seems to be of benefit to the intern teachers. However, the role of the intern teacher was not well understood in a significant number of jurisdictions which encouraged the researcher to suggest that those entrusted with overseeing the program, might consider making the role of the intern teacher clear to those who are operating the program.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study has come to a happy conclusion because of assistance received, either directly or indirectly, from many people, and to all of them I extend my gratitude.

It is my very great pleasure to acknowledge my indebtedness to Dr. E.W. Ratsoy, my dissertation advisor, for his kindness, patience, wise counsel and time unstintingly given when he made it appear that I was his only concern.

A debt is due, too, to the other members of my dissertation committee, Dr. E.D. Hodgson, Dr. J.J. Bergen, Dr. D. Friesen and Dr. M. Horowitz for their scholarly advice and continued interest and support during the course of the study. The helpful comments of Dr. I.E. Housego, my external examiner, are also greatly appreciated.

I wish to thank Mrs. Christiane Prokop for her unfailing interest and encouragement during the study and for her expertise in its statistical analysis.

This study could not have been undertaken without the cooperation of more than one hundred beginning and intern teachers. I thank them for their overwhelming generosity and their superintendents and principals for allowing me access to them.

In a very particular way, I wish to thank my sister, Audrey Elizabeth Carruthers, who came to Canada from Australia and, by doing so, eased my burden considerably. She filled many roles in the seven months following her arrival. Among these were home maker, research assistant and computer operator. This dissertation is a shared project--I wrote it and she produced it.

Table of Contents

Chapter		Page
I.		
	THE PROBLEM	1
	Introduction	1
	Background to the Problem	3
	Genesis of the Study	6
	Purpose of the Study	6
	Practical Significance of the Study	7
	Theoretical Significance of the Study	7
	Research Significance	9
	Relevance to Educational Administration	9
	Outline of the Dissertation	10
	Relevant Models for the Study	10
II.		
	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	16
	Career and Life Stages	16
	The Place of Induction in the Organization	21
	Induction Creates Needs	21
	Induction to Teaching	24
	Specific Problems	26
	Do Neophytes Want Assistance?	27
	Induction Programs	28
	The Place of Supervision in the Organization	30
	Models of Supervision	31
	Helping vs Evaluating	33
	Mentors: An Overview	39

Mentor-Protege Relationship 41
Benefits for the Mentor 42
Importance of the Relationship 43
Counselling Component 44
Counselling by Mentors 46
Ethics 47
Personal Ethics 48
Professional Ethics 49
Personal Ethics vs Professional Ethics 50
Conclusion 51

III.

METHODOLOGY 53
Ethical Considerations 53
Questionnaire 53
Sample 56
Data Collection 56
Data Collection 59
A. Types of Interview 61
B. Triangulation 61
C. The Semi-Structured Interview 62
D. The Interview Schedule 63
E. Closing Comments 64
Data Analysis 64
Definitions 64
Limitations 67

IV.

INDUCTION TO TEACHING: TEACHER CATEGORIES 68

A. Adjustment to the Community: Teacher Categories 69
Findings 69
Discussion 72
B. Adjustment to the School System: Teacher Categories 73
Findings 73
Discussion 75
C. Adjustment to the School: Teacher Categories 76
Findings 76
Discussion 79
D. Adjustment to the Classroom: Teacher Categories 83
Findings 83
Discussion 86
E. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Teacher Categories 93
Findings 93
Discussion 95
F. Adjustment to the New Role: Teacher Categories 96
Findings 96
Discussion 98
G. Chapter Summary 100
Adjustment to the community 102
Adjustment to the school system 102
Adjustment to the school 103
Adjustment to the classroom 104
Adjustment to the field of eduction 106
Adjustment to the new role 107
General Conclusion 107

V.

INDUCTION TO TEACHING: SEX, AGE GROUP AND LOCATION DIFFERENCES 108

A. Adjustment to the Community: Sex Differences 108

Findings 109

Discussion 109

B. Adjustment to the School System: Sex Differences 109

Findings 109

Discussion 110

C. Adjustment to the School: Sex Differences 110

Findings 110

Discussion 111

D. Adjustment to the Classroom: Sex Differences 114

Findings 114

Discussion 115

E. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Sex Differences 116

Findings 116

Discussion 117

F. Adjustment to the New Role: Sex Differences 117

Findings 117

Discussion 118

G. Adjustment to the Community: Age Group Differences 120

Findings 120

Discussion 120

H. Adjustment to the School System: Age Group Differences 120

Findings 120

Discussion 121

I. Adjustment to the School: Age Group Differences 121
Findings 121
Discussion 122
J. Adjustment to the Classroom: Age Group Differences 123
Findings 123
Discussion 124
K. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Age Group Differences 126
Findings 126
Discussion 126
L. Adjustment to the New Role: Age Group Differences 127
Findings 127
Discussion 128
M. Adjustment to the Community: Location Differences 129
Findings 129
Discussion 130
N. Adjustment to the School System: Location Differences 131
Findings 131
Discussion 132
O. Adjustment to the School: Location Differences 132
Findings 132
Discussion 133
P. Adjustment to the Classroom: Location Differences 134
Findings 134
Discussion 135
Q. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Location Differences 137
Findings 137
Discussion 138

R. Adjustment to the New Role: Location Differences 138
Findings 138
Discussion 140
S. Chapter Summary 142
Sex of the Participants 142
Adjustment to the community 142
Adjustment to the school system 142
Adjustment to the school 142
Adjustment to the classroom 144
Adjustment to the field of eduction 144
Adjustment to the new role 145
Age Group of the Participants 145
Adjustment to the community 145
Adjustment to the school system 147
Adjustment to the school 147
Adjustment to the classroom 147
Adjustment to the field of eduction 147
Adjustment to the new role 148
Location of the Participants 148
Adjustment to the community 148
Adjustment to the school system 150
Adjustment to the school 150
Adjustment to the classroom 150
Adjustment to the field of eduction 150
Adjustment to the new role 151
General Conclusion 151

VI.

DEALING WITH PROBLEMS: TEACHER CATEGORIES 152

A. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted 153

Findings 153

Discussion 155

B. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers 155

Findings 156

Discussion 158

C. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors 160

Findings 160

Discussion 160

D. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations ... 164

Findings 164

Discussion 164

E. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations 168

Findings 168

Discussion 168

F. Chapter Summary 168

VII.

DEALING WITH PROBLEMS: SEX, AGE GROUP AND LOCATION 171

A. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted, Sex Differences 171

Findings 171

Discussion 172

B. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers, Sex Differences 172

Findings 173

Discussion 174

C. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors , Sex Differences 174

Findings 174

Discussion 174

D. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations, Sex Differences 176

Findings 177

Discussion 177

E. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations, Sex Differences .. 178

Findings 178

Discussion 178

F. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted, Age Differences 178

Findings 179

Discussion 179

G. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers, Age Group Differences 180

Findings 180

Discussion. 180

H. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors, Age Group Differences 182

Findings 182

Discussion 183

I. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations, Age Group Differences 183

Findings 183

Discussion 183

J. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations, Age Group Differences 184

Findings 184

Discussion 184

K. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted, Location Differences 185

Findings 185

Discussion 185

L. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers, Location Differences 186

Findings 187

Discussion 187

M. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors, Location Differences 189

Findings 189

Discussion 189

N. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations, Location Differences 190

Findings 190

Discussion 190

O. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations, Location Differences 191

Findings 191

Discussion 191

P. Chapter Summary 192

Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted 192

Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers 192

Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors 193

Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations 194

Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations 194

VIII.

INTERVIEWS 195

A. Purpose 195

B. Sample 195
C. Interview Schedule 196
D. Pilot Testing 196
E. Profile of Interviewees 197
F. First Purpose 198
G. Second Purpose 203
H. Third Purpose 203
I. Fourth Purpose 204
J. Fifth Purpose 205
K. Comments on the Interviews 206
L. Chapter Summary 208

IX.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS 209
A. Problem and Subproblems 209
B. Methodology 210
C. Findings 211
First and Second Subproblems: Adjustment Difficulties 211
Adjustment to the community 211
Adjustment to the school system 212
Adjustment to the school 212
Adjustment to the classroom 214
Adjustment to the field of eduction 215
Adjustment to the new role 216
Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted 218
Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers 219
Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors 220

Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations 220

Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations 221

D. Discussion 221

E. Interviews 224

F. Conclusions 225

G. Implications 230

Practice 230

Theory 232

Research 233

BIBLIOGRAPHY 235

APPENDIX A 242

APPENDIX B 245

APPENDIX C 248

APPENDIX D 266

VITA 271

List of Tables

Table		Page
I.1	O'Neil's Developmental Stages of Mentoring	15
I.2	Four Career Stages	15
II.1	Classification of New Staff Members by Origin and Career	29
IV.1	Adjustment to the Community	70
IV.2	Adjustment to the School System	74
IV.3	Adjustment to the School	77
IV.4	Adjustment to the Classroom	84
IV.5	Results for Item 12 by Groups: Having a Procedure Available for Discussing Problems	89
IV.6	Rank Order for the Top Eleven Critical Events as Rated by the Whole Group and Three Subgroups	91
IV.7	Adjustment to the Field of Education	94
IV.8	Adjustment to the New Role	97
IV.9	Teacher Group Differences in Six Adjustment Areas	101
V.1	Statistically Significant Mean Differences Encountered by Sex Groups in Six Areas of Adjustment	119
V.2	Items in Descending Order of Mean Size for Help Sought and Help Received by the Younger and Older Groups in Adjusting to the Classroom	125
V.3	Statistically Significant Mean Differences Encountered by Age Groups in Six Areas of Adjustment	128
V.4	Statistically Significant Mean Differences Encountered by Location Groups in Six Areas of Adjustment	141
V.5	Males and Females in Six Adjustment Areas	143
V.6	Age Group Differences in Six Adjustment Areas	146
V.7	Location Differences in Six Adjustment Areas	149
VI.1	Frequency of Type of Personnel Approached for Assistance	154
VI.2	Frequencies of Choice of Critical Events by Whole Group and Three Subgroups	157

Table		Page
VI.3	Mentor Association Scale	158
VI.4	Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by Whole Group	161
VI.5	Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by Whole Group and Subgroups	162
VI.6	Frequencies of Advantages Derived from Pre-Teaching Mentor Association	165
VI.7	Frequencies of Disadvantages Experienced in a Pre-Teaching Mentor Association	165
VI.8	Frequencies of Advantages Derived from First Year Teaching Mentor Association	166
VI.9	Frequencies of Disadvantages Experienced in the First Year teaching Mentor Association	166
VII.1	Frequency of Type of Personnel Approached for Assistance	172
VII.2	Frequency of Problems by Sex	173
VII.3	Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by Whole Group and Sex Subgroups	175
VII.4	Eleven Most Frequently Mentioned Problems Listed by Age Groups	181
VII.5	Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities in Mentors by the Whole Group and Age Subgroups	182
VII.6	Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by the Whole Group and Location Subgroups	189

List of Figures

Figure		Page
I.1	A Suggested Framework for the Study of Mentorship	11
I.2	Framework for the Study of a Mentor-Protege Relationship in an Alberta Secondary School Between an Experienced and a Beginning Teacher	12
I.3	Model of Mentor-Protege Relationships from School Days to the End of the First Teaching Year	13
II.1	The Classic Model of Professional Education	17
II.2	Developmental Periods in Early and Middle Adulthood	19
II.3	Eras in the Male Life Cycle	19
II.4	Time Comparison of Levinson's Life Stages and Houle's Career Stages	20
II.5	Major Administrative Functions and Subfunctions of the Goodville School System	22
II.6	Illustration of Vertical Expansion of the Personnel Function	23

Chapter I

THE PROBLEM

Intfoduction

This study was concerned with beginning teachers and their induction to the teaching profession. The study sought their perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages for beginning teachers of having a mentor in the first year of teaching.

Beginning teachers were asked to identify critical events faced by them in their first teaching year. These critical events were classified in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the developmental stages of mentoring of O'Neil (1981) as described by Bova and Phillips (1984:16).

There is much evidence in the literature that mentoring is important and that proteges have profited through their association with a mentor. Levinson (1979:97) has claimed that "the mentor relationship is one of the most complex, and developmentally important, a man can have in early adulthood." This is illustrated by Fagan and Walter's (1982:113) claim concerning business: "Some business leaders have recognized the importance of mentoring for decades; for example J.C. Penney & Co. has used the mentoring approach to train store managers since 1901...."

Busch (1985:257) has pointed out that "most mentoring research has been in business and industry." Bova and Phillips (1984:19) have noted that "organizations need to be made aware of the benefits of mentoring and should encourage their senior employees to help cultivate the skills and talents of newcomers."

DeWine and others (not named), (1983:1) have commented that "only recently have researchers recognized the critical role mentors play in the development of organizational leaders." Another comment taken from the world of business is that of DeAnda and Downey (1982:15): "Those who had potential but had not had the experience of being managers needed a mentor, opportunities to learn, and the strategies and the opportunities to make themselves known in their field." Fagan and Walter (1982:113) have found that "beginning managers need mentors to succeed in business...." Burke (1982:10,12) found that, in his study, nearly two thirds of the senior executives had a mentor and that such executives earned more at a younger age. From the literature, then, it would appear that mentors are important in the commercial world and are a benefit not only to the proteges but also to the organization.

Moore (1982a:46) studied 2896 senior college executives. One of her findings was that "the mentor-protege relationship ... appears to be a potent association for the advancement of individuals' careers." Carter (1982:10), referring to academia, has stated that an academic is not fully fledged unless mentor/guru status has been achieved. Moore (1982b:5) has reported that early recognition and rapid promotion are consequences of being identified with a mentor. Elliott and Holmberg-Wright (1983:71) wanted to know if having had a mentor had assisted women academics. The female academics valued "any form of legitimate assistance from a mentor." Nichols and Golden (1982:12) have reported on a connection between post-doctoral experience and mentoring: "...and our proposal was written in response to a grant announcement which stressed, among other things, the importance of mentoring to the post-doctoral experience."

Of course, not all studies were full of praise for the mentoring system. An illustration of lack of support was given by Nichols and Golden (1982:9) when they said: "Mentors can inhibit independence and professional autonomy." Clawson (1980:144) has contributed this negative comment:

> The belief, apparently, is that everyone must have a mentor and then becomes one in order to develop fully and successfully.
>
> These can be dangerous and counterproductive beliefs in a particular individual's life in the sense that they can usurp a lot of time and energy that could be

channeled into more promising and needful activities.

Gehrky and Kay (1984:23,24) have recorded their belief that mentors are not for all:

> While there are those who insist that everyone *needs* a mentor, we are not so inclined. Obviously many people, teachers included, become fully functioning, happy adults without having had a mentor. But we do believe that mentor-protege relationships are good for both persons and ought to be fostered, just as good parent-child relationships should be fostered.

Busch (1985:264) has reported: "The most typical negative aspects were the amount of time needed for a successful relationship and students becoming overly dependent on the mentor. However, most felt that there were no negative aspects to mentoring."

Most of the references found connecting mentors with schools were in relation to special children. Of the eleven references dealing with students, eight dealt with gifted children: Wetherel (1983), Runions (1983), Harrington (1983), Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, Washington, DC. (1982), Gray and Gray (1982), Cox (1984), Szekely (1981) and Mosely and Todd (1983). Of the remaining three, Harris and others (not named), (1983) dealt with disadvantaged young people (16 to 21 years of age), Evenson (1982) dealt with employability and Speizer (1981) dealt with a literature review which examined role models. There was only one Canadian reference, the study by Runions. The eleven references just cited were not read as they did not deal with beginning teachers. The information was taken from a computer printout of an ERIC search which also contained many relevant studies.

Background to the Problem

Induction to a new position, whether it be at the start of a career or in mid career to a higher level of responsibility in an organization, is often fraught with trauma. Time to settle into the new situation is sometimes not available. The desire for assistance may be high but the asking for it may be difficult, perhaps because of pride, of shyness or of real or unreal perceptions of threat should the wish for help become known. In the specific field of education, new principals are expected to lead their schools with the same expertise as experienced principals and new teachers are expected by many to perform in a manner

indistinguishable from highly experienced and competent colleagues. An unlit candle can light up through contact with a lit one without diminishing the brightness of the light provider. Is it not analogous to the beginning teacher interacting with more experienced teachers who have proved their competence?

Beginning teachers and newly appointed principals have one thing at least in common. They are both entering an induction period. Newly appointed principals are likely to be experienced and competent teachers with a good grasp of the political realities of schools and schooling. If then, newly appointed principals experience a stressful time in their induction period, it would not be surprising if beginning teachers had induction difficulties too.

Some examples of what new principals might expect to experience in their first principalship have been found in the literature. Renihan (1984:4) has commented: "For the principal who enters the arena for the first time, there are new responsibilities for which the role of teacher has provided no preparation." Kelly (1984a:13) has emphasized that not even assistant principals are prepared for the principalship:

> While all eight looked upon the assistant principalship as a preparation ground for the principalship, they observed that assistant principals spend most of their time at tasks they will not look after as principals, and very little time at tasks they must perform when they become principals. As a result, the efficacy of the assistant principalship is highly questionable.

Sackney (1980:1) has pointed out that many teachers take up their first principalship with expectations that will not be realized. Leithwood and Fullan (1984:8) have indicated that ongoing assistance is essential for principals in general: "This assistance may come, for example, from interaction between supervisors and principals and from peer-sharing among principals." And again from Renihan (1984:3): "The principal's role is complex and multi-faceted; one which does not lend itself easily to adoption without some basic training and skill development." If induction, then, is a difficult time for those rated experienced and competent, it is no wonder that induction can be traumatic for beginning teachers who are inexperienced and of unproven competence in the teaching profession.

Ratsoy, McEwen and Caldwell (1979:8-10) identified twenty-one skills which were considered to be necessary for effective teaching. Their study is significant because it is reasonably recent, it covered the greater Edmonton area and it involved, among others, approximately 100 beginning teachers. This present study has been positively influenced by the Ratsoy et al. study in selecting the geographical boundaries of the study and in the method of sampling. Among their findings, Ratsoy et al. (1979:65) have recorded: "The five 'most important' of the twenty-one skills included in the study were perceived to be controlling students, motivating students, planning instruction, diagnosing learner needs and presenting information."

These five preferred skills are reflected in the writings of Pataniczek and Isaacson (1981:14), who, in the first line of an article they wrote on new secondary teachers, spoke about "the ordeals shared by most beginning teachers." They recorded that "four of the five highest-ranked concerns reflected problems of classroom management/discipline, or knowing students." Milne (1968:62) has also reported on beginning teachers: "Most beginning teachers appear to experience the greatest degree of difficulty with problems in Methods, Discipline, and Evaluation." Veenman(1984:143) has studied the transition from teacher training to first teaching appointment in many countries around the world. He has found that this transition "could be a dramatic and traumatic one." Fagan and Walter (1982:114) have cited a finding by Compton (1979) who surveyed a large group of first year teachers in Ohio:

> Most of these teachers replied that their principals expected them to be a "finished product." In the words of one respondent, "I needed help in disciplining students. A new teacher in the school system is expected to rely totally on his own resources. It is strictly a 'sink or swim' situation."

Huffman and Leak (1986:22), citing Galvez-Hjornevik (1985), have reported a similar finding: "...they were constantly faced with the expectation of performing as experienced teachers." This expectation apparently caused beginning teachers to feel that any requests for assistance would be interpreted as signs of incompetence. The literature supports the contention that beginning teachers would benefit from assistance. There are people, both in the education system and out, who are both knowledgeable and experienced. Beginning teachers will be asked

if they perceive an advantage in having access to this knowledge and experience.

Genesis of the Study

Interest in this problem stems from the fact that the writer, a retired high school principal, went back to university to continue his studies. Without seeking the position, he found himself in two universities filling a mentor role for some of his fellow students and fellow residents of his hall. Whether the proteges derived benefit or not will not be addressed at the moment, but the mentor can declare that he derived great satisfaction from the mentor role.

Purpose of the Study

This study was undertaken to seek the perceptions of beginning teachers regarding the possible advantages and disadvantages of having a mentoring system available for such teachers. Thus the specific subproblems were:

1. To identify potential areas of adjustment difficulties faced by beginning secondary teachers and differences in adjustment difficulties;
2. To identify differences in adjustment difficulties, if any, among categories of respondents based on sex, age group and location;
3. To identify the personnel consulted by beginning teachers in dealing with critical events they faced in Alberta secondary schools;
4. To identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred, and the developmental stages of mentoring;
5. To identify factors which would encourage the beginning secondary teacher to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege;
6. To seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them and to relate these perceptions to various personal and

positional variables; and

7. To seek the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

Practical Significance of the Study

The study has proved useful on a number of grounds:

1. It has drawn attention to the existence of problems that are encountered by beginning teachers.
2. It has shown how the school could utilize, to a greater degree, the acquired knowledge and expertise of the mentor for the particular benefit of the protege and the general benefit of the school.
3. It has indicated to prospective mentors advantages they could anticipate from the role.
4. Effective mentoring requires that the mentor be sensitive to the needs of the protege. The presence of the mentor could raise the general level of sensitivity among the teachers.
5. Teachers work in professional and psychological isolation. Effective mentoring would allow the mentor to accompany, metaphorically, the protege into the classroom.
6. Schools of education might consider offering courses for prospective mentors. Houle (1980:212) has made a relevant comment: "The student-mentor relationship has become the subject of deep theoretical analysis and, as a result, has given rise to many innovative programs in continuing professional education."
7. Courses in educational administration could make aspiring principals and superintendents aware of the role of the mentor and by indicating the usefulness of mentoring, encourage the employment of mentors.

Theoretical Significance of the Study

This study may assist in clarifying issues raised by the supporters of formal mentoring and supporters of informal mentoring. School systems are generally bureaucratic in structure.

It is well known that the formal structure of the bureaucracy is not the only one. Of great significance is the existence of the informal structure. It is but a step, then, to recognize the existence of an informal power structure if we allow the existence of a formal power structure. This gives us the distinction between authority and influence. When formal power is exercised, we have authority, and the consequence of the use of informal power is influence.

It is the researcher's belief that, in many schools, there is an informal mentoring system in operation, which, from what has been said, means that the mentors are in positions of influence. It might well be that such mentors and their neophytes might want to formalize their relationships thus transforming influence into authority. Fagan and Walter (1982:117) have expressed it this way: "Although mentoring relationships cannot be arranged on paper (chemistry is important), formal mentoring programs may be worth trying." Zey (1985:57) has told of six giant American organizations which saw the advantages of mentoring to their organizations, but experience taught them that informal mentoring was inadequate so they "implemented policies to actively develop mentor programs." Kram (1985:183-184,185) had reservations about formalized mentoring:

> First, when mentors and proteges are assigned to each other, the likelihood of the relationship evolving into one that provides a variety of developmental functions is small. Both juniors and seniors may feel mismatched or coerced into a relationship that they do not particularly want to cultivate; yet the organization pressures them to continue their interaction. In these circumstances, seniors may resent their responsibilities as mentors, and juniors are likely to grow pessimistic about the value of relationships with senior colleagues.

and

> The risks of a formal mentoring system are high, and the potential benefits have not been clearly demonstrated.

In the review of literature, a number of models of supervision have been described. Some of these models relate very closely to the idea of mentoring. This study has drawn out aspects of supervision and mentoring from the literature and a comparison of these aspects will help to make clear the distinction between supervision and mentoring.

Research Significance

A careful search of Dissertation Abstracts International, volumes 41 to 45, both inclusive, 1980 to 1985, has revealed 31 dissertations which include the words "mentor" or "mentoring" in their titles. The majority deal with business and higher education. Not one deals with neophyte teachers. This would indicate that the mentor- neophyte teacher relationship is a neglected area of study. This study will help to fill a gap in available knowledge concerning the effect mentoring might have in helping neophyte teachers in their first professional year.

Relevance to Educational Administration

The literature provides a number of links between mentors and the administration of higher education (Moore, 1982:11, Kelly, 1984b:53). Williams (1982:8) has reported that she has included mentoring in graduate studies in administration at the University of Texas. Willis and Dodgson (1986:5) have made a relevant comment: "Mount Saint Vincent University recently advertised a mentoring program to help students make the transition from university to the world of work. Could a similar program be offered for aspiring administrators?" Dodgson (1986:33), although not having neophyte teachers in mind, has made an observation which is germane to administrators in education:

> The crucial person at the educational level is the principal who provides the essential first boost of a protege to higher positions. Since providing a role model is so important to the process, principals and aspiring principals should be encouraged to learn how mentoring works.

Principals, the senior administrative authority in their schools, have a responsibility towards all members of their staffs. They are answerable to the higher, central authority for the professional development of their teachers and for the manner in which they carry out their duties. Among the most deserving of a principal's attention is the beginning teacher. If mentoring the neophyte, either formally or informally, is to the beginning teacher's advantage, then an awareness, at least, of mentoring sits easily in the province of the educational administrator. By extension, it would readily find a place in courses in educational administration at institutes of higher education. This comment from Gehrke and Kay

(1984:24) is relevant: "Finally, we might turn our attention to principals who were also frequently identified as mentors. There may well be elements in their preparation and job organization that might make it more likely that they function as mentors to teachers who desire one." Dodgson (1986:29) has uncovered a direct link between mentors and administration: "Odysseus left his son Telemachus in the care of a servant Mentor, who looked after Telemachus physically, morally, intellectually and spiritually, and oversaw the boy's social and administrative education."

Outline of the Dissertation

The dissertation has been developed as follows:

1. Chapter II presents a review of related literature with the intention of ascertaining the thinking of other writers on mentors and their role.
2. Chapter III describes the methodology employed.
3. Chapters IV - VII deal with the presentation and analysis of data.
4. Chapter VIII deals with interviews.
5. Chapter IX presents a summary statememt of conclusions together with recommendations for further study.

Relevant Models for the Study

The model by Hunt and Michael (1983:478), Figure I.1, gave a suitable general overview of a mentorship study. Figure I.2 was an adaptation of the general model to suit the more specific nature of this study. In particular, the expression *need for power*, under the general Protege Characteristics, was replaced by *ambition*, and *age differential*, under Mentor Characteristics, was replaced by *age*. In Figure I.2 some possible outcomes were given. Figure I.3 was an extension of Figure I.2 in that the possibility of a neophyte teacher having had a mentor during earlier school or university days had been allowed for. The different layout of Figure I.3 and the inclusion of an evaluation of a mentor-protege relationship seemed to be of

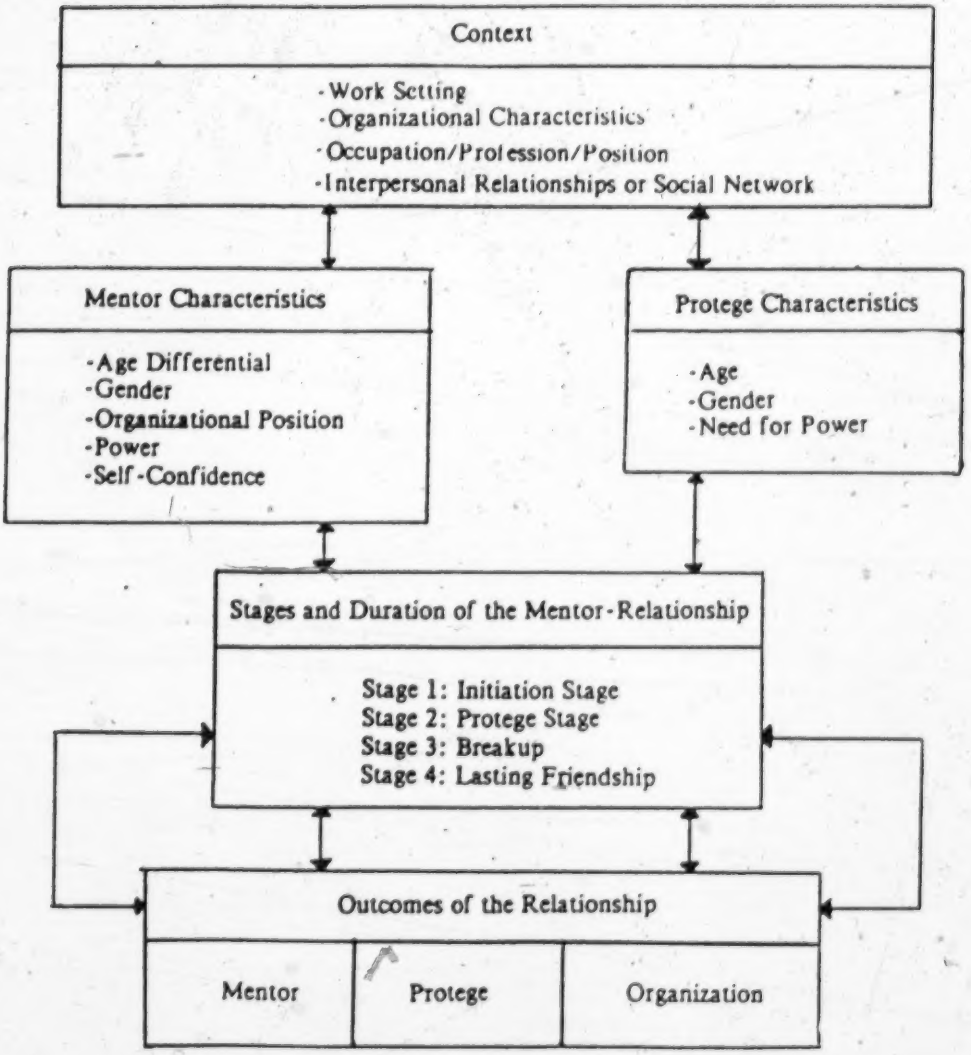

Figure 1.1. A suggested Framework for the Study of Mentorship
Adapted from Hunt and Michael (1983:478)

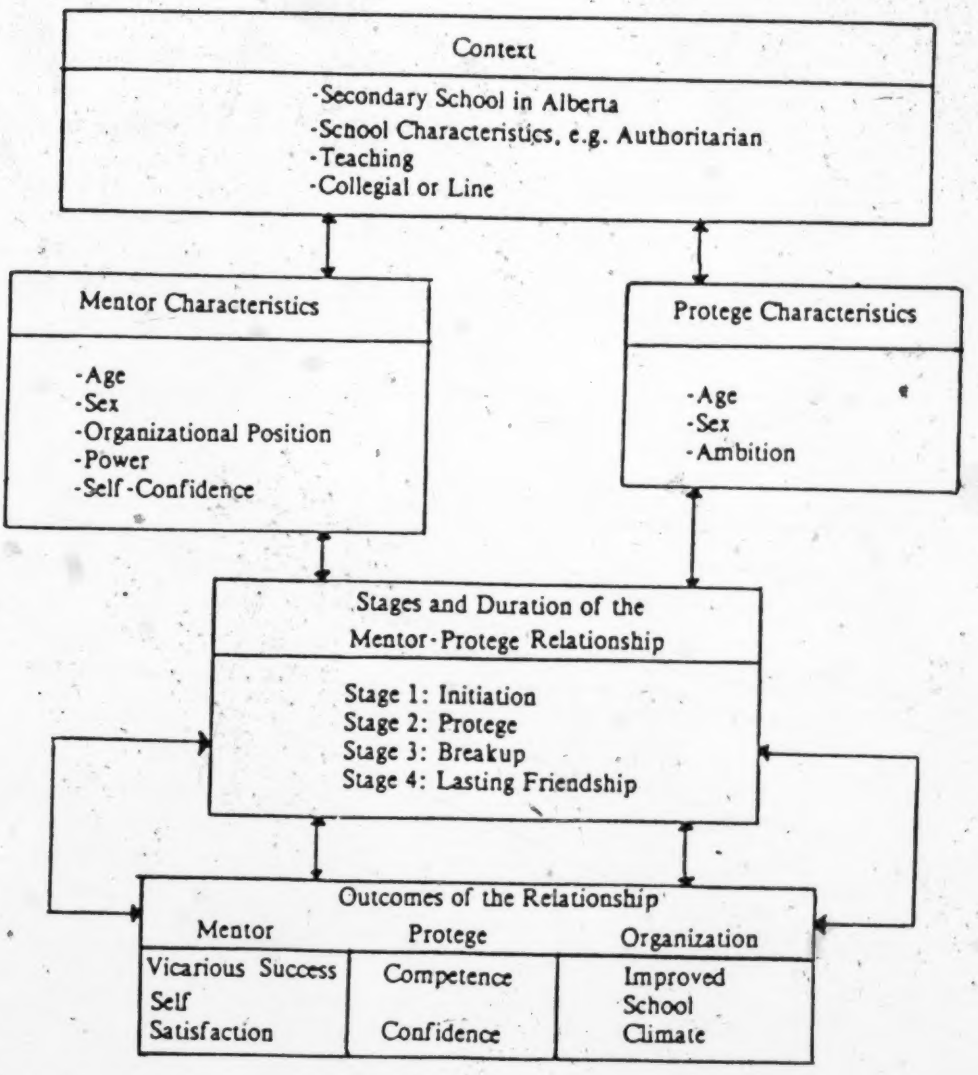

Figure 1.2. Framework for the Study of a Mentor-Protege Relationship in an Alberta Secondary School Between an Experienced and a Beginning Teacher

Adapted from Hunt and Michael (1983:478)

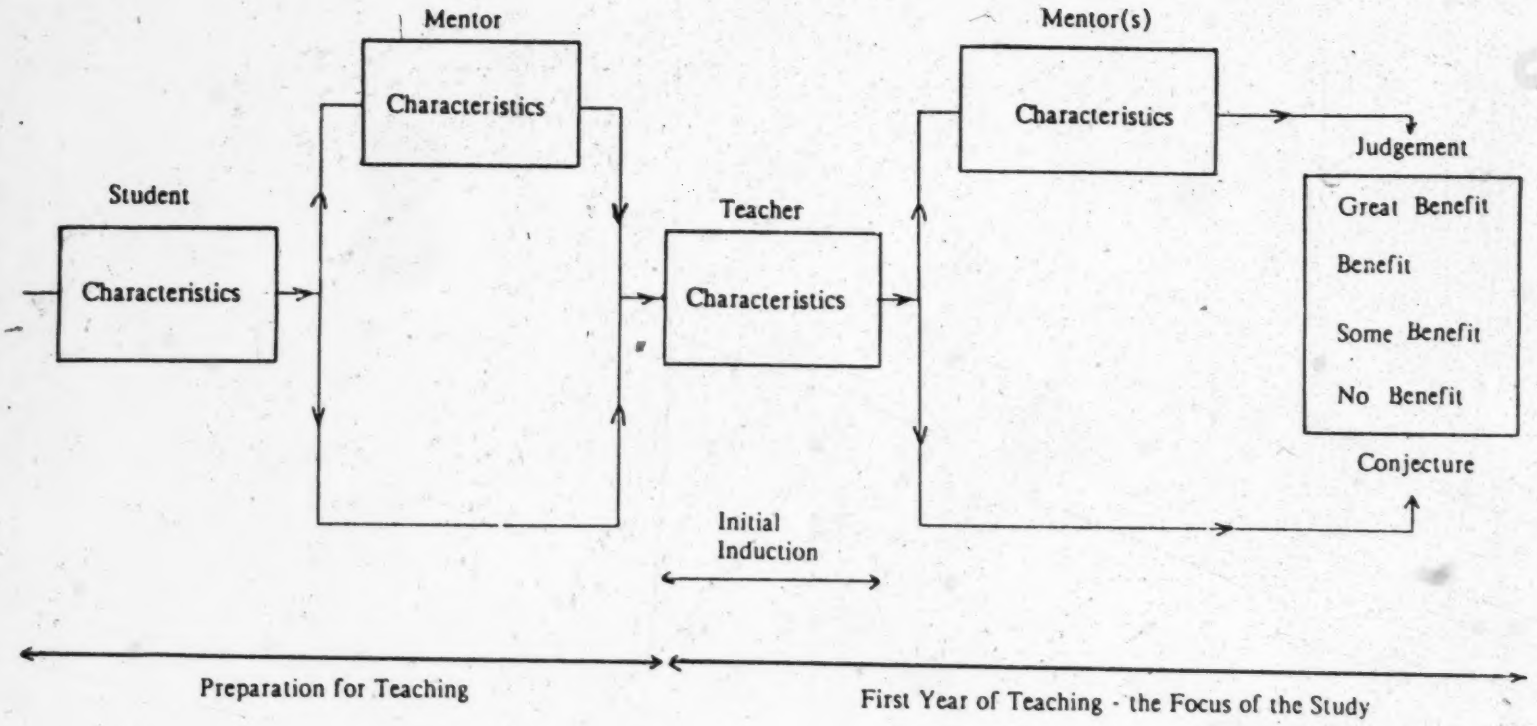

Figure 1.3. Model of Mentor-Protege Relationships from School Days to the End of the First Teaching Year

advantage to anyone interested in reading the study.

Table I.1 showed O'Neil's (1981) *Developmental Stages of Mentoring*, which was cited by Bova and Phillips (1984:16). Burke's (1982:11) *Four Career Stages*, Table I.2, set the mentor in stage 3 of the career pattern. Not one of these models was a perfect fit for this study but nevertheless they were useful. As an example of lack of fit, attention was drawn to Burke's *mentor* being attached to *apprentice*. In this study the novice teacher shared some qualities with the apprentice, but a major difference was that the beginning teacher was qualified and had collegial status with experienced teachers. O'Neil's six stages of mentoring would be subsumed by stages 1 - 3 in the model of Hunt and Michael.

Despite this lack of congruence in the models, each model contributed positively to some degree in simplifying the theory underlying mentor-protege relationships. Krupp (1984:2) has offered support to those who experience difficulty in conceptualizing a research study in mentoring:

> Although mentoring research has been criticized for its lack of clear conceptualization of what is being measured or offered as an ingredient for success (Merriam 1983), present research does document the positive effect of mentoring relationships on both protege and mentor.

Table I.1 O'Neil's Developmental Stages of Mentoring

1	2	3	4	5	6
Entry	Mutual Building of Trust	Risk taking	Teaching of Skills	Professional Standards	Dissolution

Adapted from Bova and Phillips (1984:16)

Table I.2 Four Career Stages

	STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3	STAGE 4
Central Activity	Helping Learning Following directions	Independent contribution	Training Interfacing	Shaping the direction of the organization
Primary Relationship	Apprentice	Colleague	Mentor	Sponsor
Major Psychological Issues	Dependence	Independence	Assuming responsibility for others	Exercising power

Adapted from Burke (1982:11)

Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of a sample of beginning teachers in Alberta secondary schools, regarding the possible advantages and disadvantages of having a mentoring system available for beginning teachers. The literature suggested that many first year teachers have to live through traumatic experiences. Many attempts have been made by school districts to alleviate the difficulties of the neophyte teacher. It was appropriate, then, to examine the literature concerning models of mentor studies, career and life stages, evidence of difficulties experienced by beginning teachers, attempts to ease the task problems encountered by first year teachers, and finally, mentors as a possible solution to the difficulties of these neophytes. Aspects of mentoring had to be examined, for example, the counselling and ethical components.

Career and Life Stages

Career Stages

Houle's (1980:4) main interest was in the field of continuing professional education. His model, Figure II.1, indicated the place of the induction phase in relation to the complete career. The model covered the elementary and secondary school stages which ended with the selection of the proposed career. Education continued with a high degree of specificity because the nature of the certificate sought was now known. The induction period arrived and this was followed by continuing education within the field of expertise in order to keep abreast of new

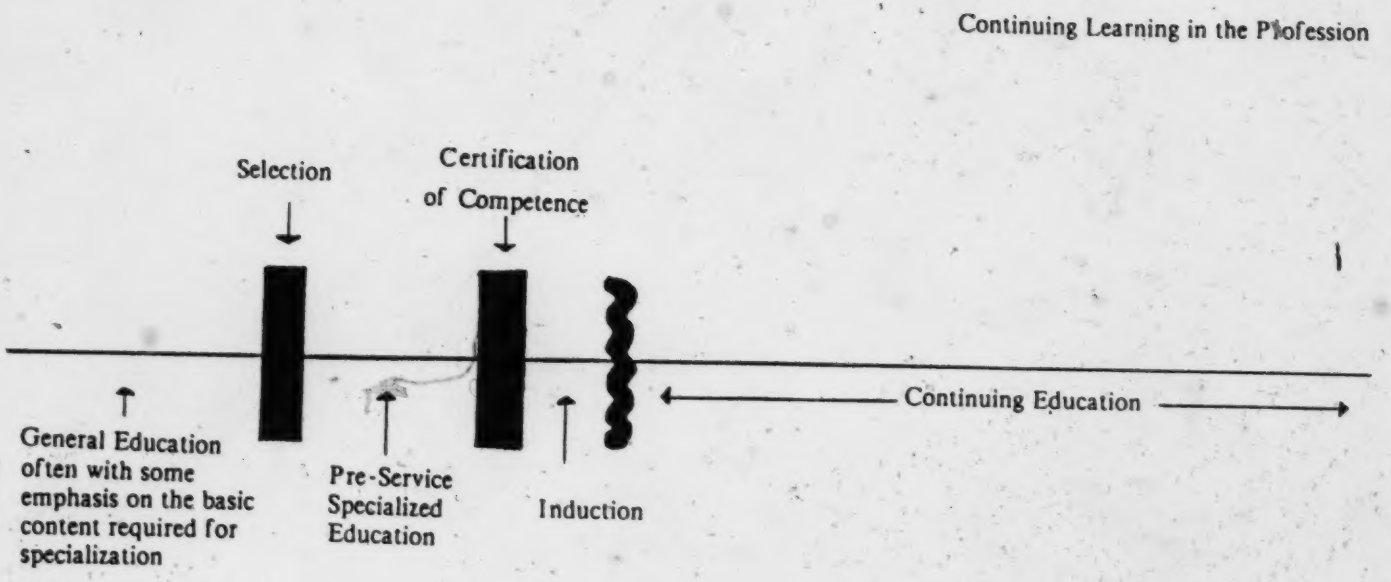
Continuing Learning in the Profession
Selection
Certification of Competence
Continuing Education
General Education often with some emphasis on the basic content required for specialization
Pre-Service Specialized Education
Induction

Figure II.1. The Classic Model of Professional Education
Adapted from Houle (1980:4)

knowledge relevant to the career or for promotion purposes. In this study the focus was on the induction of beginning teachers to their profession. It is at this point that the beginning teacher's continuing education entered a new phase.

Life Stages

Levinson originally planned to study male development between the ages of 35 and 45 but he found that this decade could not be effectively handled in isolation. It became necessary to investigate earlier life development in order to understand later development. Levinson (1979:17) reported it this way:

> It became evident, finally, that we had to deal seriously with the years between adolescence and the mid-life decade. So our major aim took shape: we had to create a theory of adult development, from the entry into adulthood until the late forties.

Figures II.2 and II.3 show the result of Levinson's work. He found that starting his studies at a younger developmental stage was not enough - - his findings took him beyond what he initially planned to investigate and the end result was the claim that a man lives through four seasons in his life cycle. This was no confirmation of a hypothesis. Levinson (1979:18) has told us quite plainly that this discovery came from pure research and was not the outcome of prior assumptions. A significant claim has been made by Levinson (1979:317). He has asserted that leaving one developmental stage for the next is not an abrupt occurrence - - it takes place over a period of approximately five years - - and that "the cross-era transitions are perhaps the crucial turning points in the life cycle." When we put the works of Houle and Levinson together, as illustrated in Figure II.4, it is readily apparent that the induction phase of a teaching career occurs within a cross-era transition in the life cycle. Perhaps this helps to explain why the literature contains so many references to distressing introductions to teaching as a career.

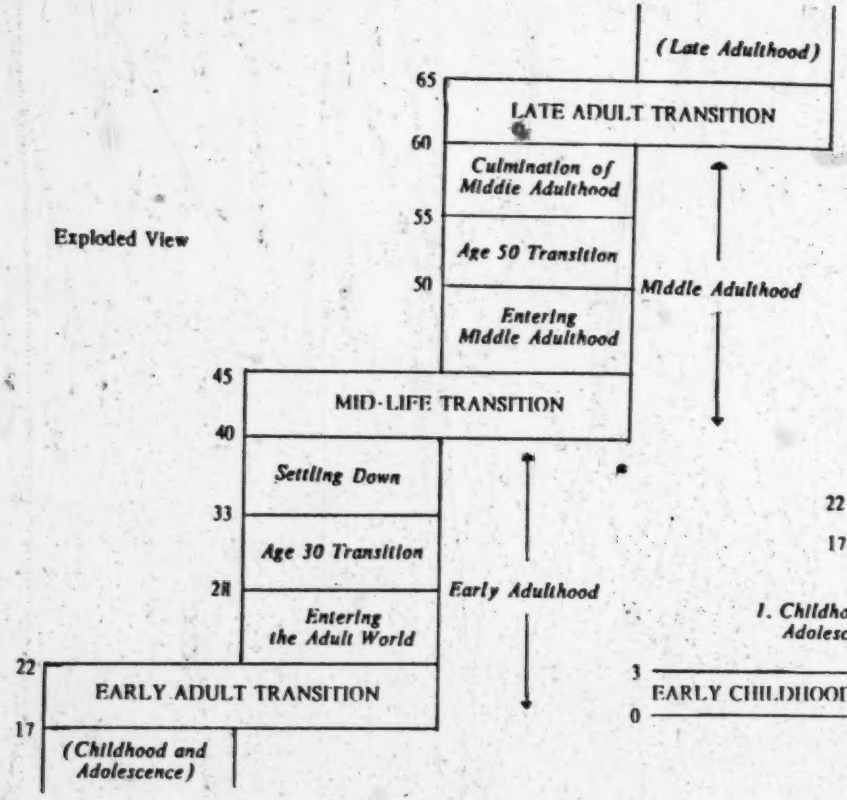

Figure II.2. Developmental Periods in Early and Middle Adulthood
Adapted from Levinson (1979:57)

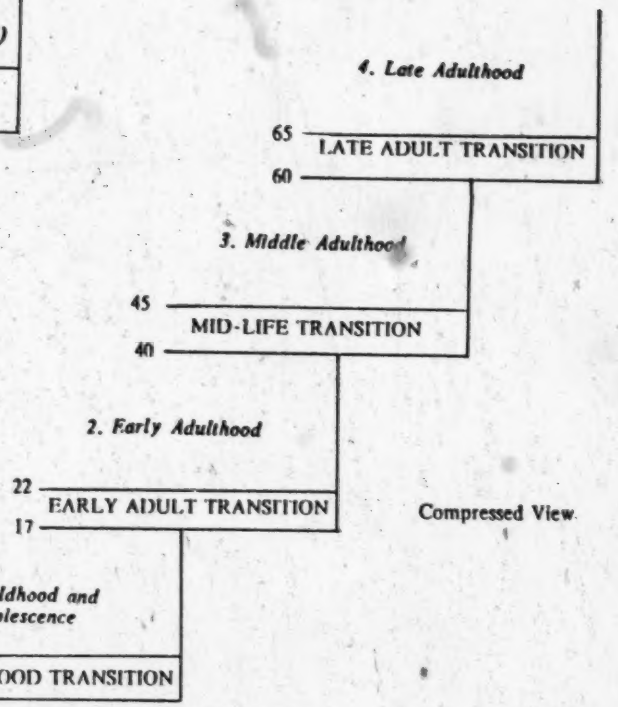

Figure II.3. Eras in the Male Life Cycle
Adapted from Levinson (1979:20)

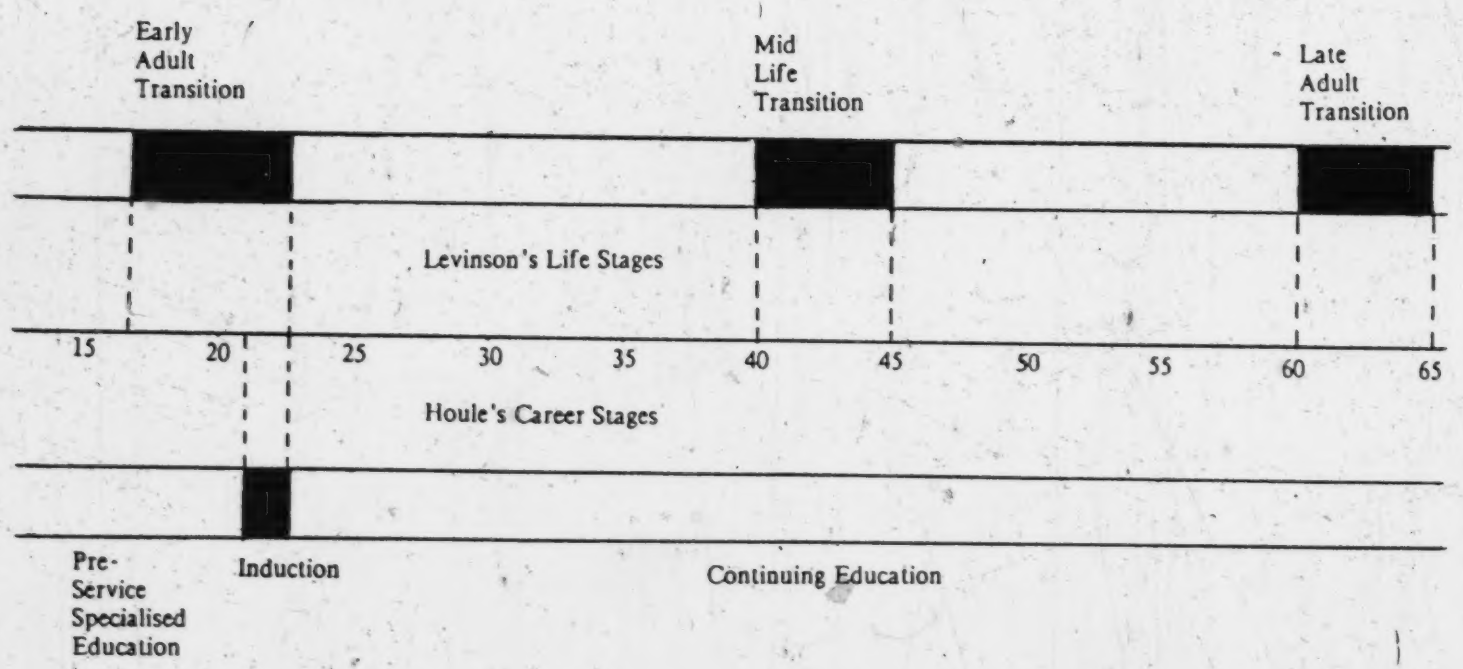

Figure II.4. Time Comparison of Levinson's Life Stages and Houle's Career Stages

The Place of Induction in the Organization

Houle (1980:35) has illustrated the various functions in the administration of a school in Figure II.5. The subfunction, induction, is part of the personnel function. Castetter (1976:36) has shown in Figure II.6 the four adjustments which become necessary due to induction. Although these illustrations were drawn from the school context, the sequence

ORGANIZATION FUNCTION....PERSONNEL FUNCTION....INDUCTION

could easily be used in many other contexts.

The points on the career line where induction can occur have been discussed and the position of induction in the organizational structure has been identified. It was now appropriate to discuss some problems associated with induction.

Induction Creates Needs

Kramer (1974:vii,viii), in her book REALITY SHOCK , distinguished between various types of shock. The distinctions she made will be useful. She described reality shock as the reaction of new graduates, who, after years of preparation, discover that the practice of their profession is completely different from their expectations and is unexpectedly beyond their competence. Kramer's field of interest was nursing but her description could apply to beginning teachers.

Culture shock, according to Kramer, occurs when it is realized that one's culture is not necessarily the best one in all circumstances. This, Kramer has claimed, is what is experienced by those who spend an extended period abroad. Tourists experience it to a lesser degree.

Acculturation shock has been identified by Kramer as being closely linked to culture shock. Acculturation occurs over a period of time as the new culture is gradually absorbed replacing one's original culture. This could be observed in civil servants from Britain who had spent many years in India. Local vocabulary, dining and drinking habits were adopted and became part of the way of life.

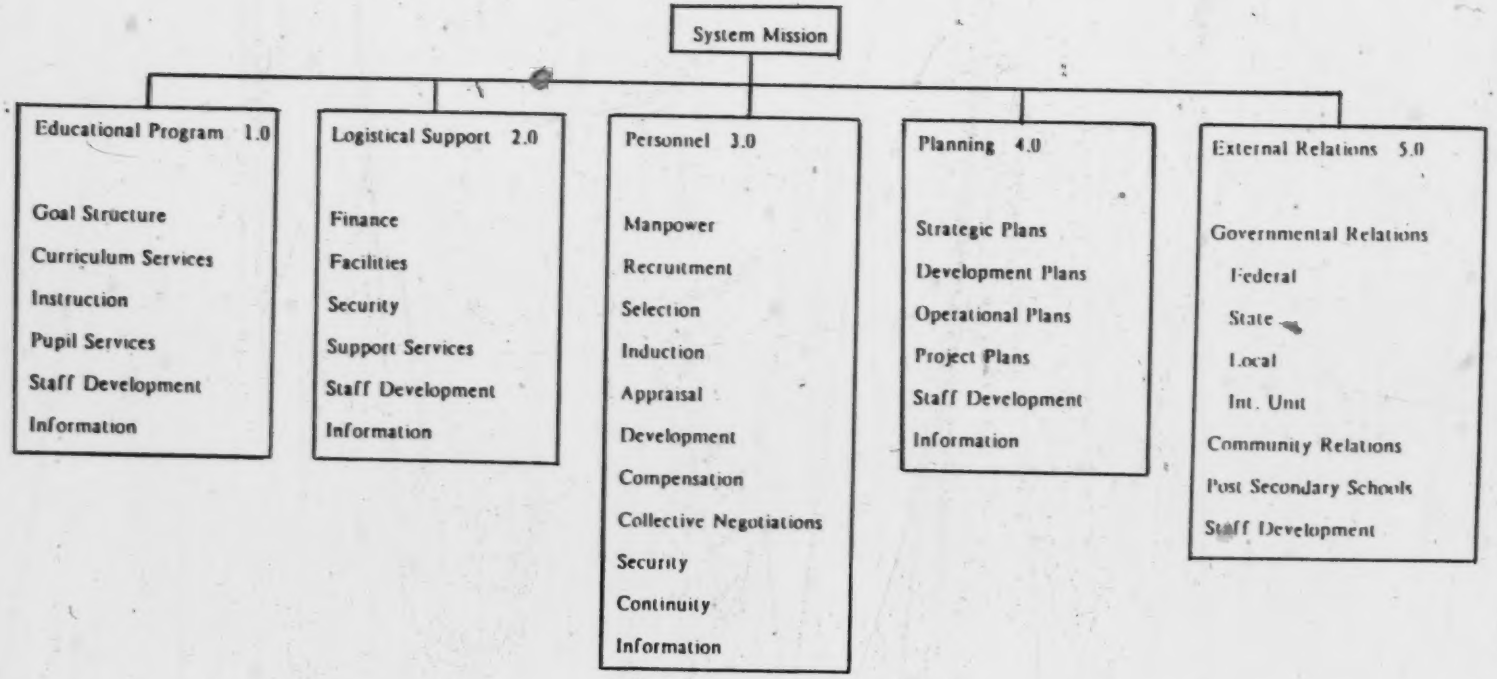

Figure II.5. Major Administrative Functions and Subfunctions of the Goodville School System
Adapted from Houle,(1980:35)

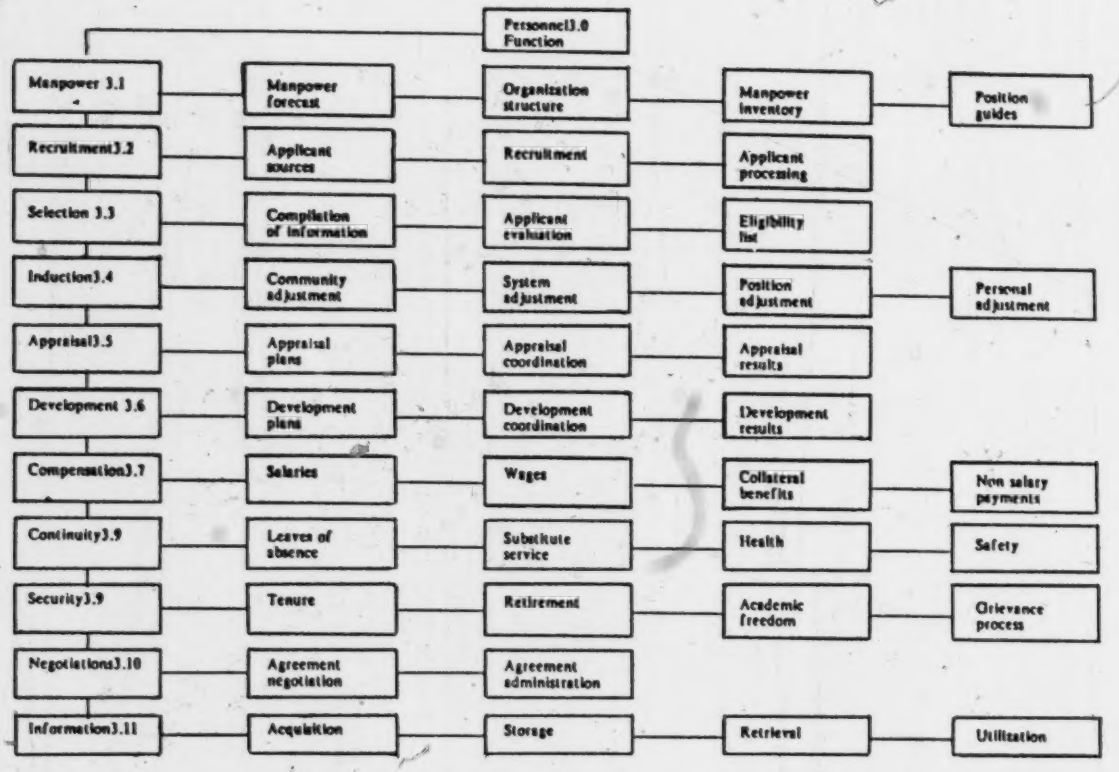

Figure 11.6. Illustration of Vertical Expansion of the Personnel Function. (Adapted from Castetter, 1976:36)

Future shock was described as the bewilderment and loss of orientation caused by change that was too rapid.

If Kramer's understanding of these various shocks is accepted, culture shock could well be experienced by a novice social worker, reared in affluence, on the first visit to an underprivileged family living in a ghetto in the slums of a large city. Culture shock would likely be reinforced by reality shock.

A trivial example of acculturation shock would be the discovery by a British educated student that North American spelling had influenced the writing of papers in a doctoral program. Finally, information overload could result in future shock.

This preamble is not without relevance to the topic of induction.

Induction to Teaching

Background

The normal age for entry to the teaching profession is in the early twenties. The beginning teacher has spent six years in elementary school, a further six in high school followed by four years at university. For sixteen years, then, the neophyte has been observing teachers and this would appear to be a generous preparation for induction to the teaching profession. Castetter (1976:205) has described induction as it should be: "Induction may be defined as a systematic organizational effort to minimize problems confronting new personnel so that they can contribute maximally to the work of the school while realizing personal and position satisfaction." Even under the happiest circumstances, induction will generally be accompanied by a degree of apprehension by most neophytes. No longer are they student teachers. The joy and pride of graduation day have been replaced by the realization that exercising the teacher role carries with it professional responsibility. Houle (1980:92) has indicated the significance of induction:

> The transfer from the controlled instruction of the school to the actual practice of the profession is a time of great significance for continuing education . . . because it is then that each individual must face directly and responsibly the challenges which must be met in a world centered on performance.

Castetter has defined induction and Houle has indicated its significance. Other writers have described induction in different terms. Wildman, Niles and McLaughlin (1986:3) have seen little benefit from induction programs:

> The problem, of course, is that neither the schools nor the teacher training institutions have concerned themselves very much with what happens during the induction period. With the exception of a brief beginning of school orientation, novice teachers essentially manage their own transition into full-time teaching.

Reality Shock

> Even their student teaching did not prepare them for reality because they were still *students* who were *teaching*.
>
> These beginners came to teaching thinking they *knew* schools and schooling. They quickly learned that the teacher's perspective and the student's perspective are radically different.
>
> (Houston and Felder, 1982:457,458)

The classroom teacher has been described by Castetter (1976:103) as the most significant position in a school system, and this is the position which the neophyte is going to occupy. It is easy, then, to agree with Veenman (1984:143) that "the transition from teacher training to the first teaching job could be a dramatic and traumatic one." More definite were Houston and Felder (1982:460): "Above all, the profession must not forget that entering the world of teaching is difficult, complex and traumatic." Induction in practice, then, is held to be different from Castetter's ideal description in which, among other things, problems are minimized. Pataniczak and Isaacson (1981:16) have reported reality in these terms: "If responsibilities of new teachers differ at all, the difference is that beginners usually are left with the most unpleasant tasks, the largest or most difficult classes or the least desirable extracurricular assignments." Bush (1983:3) has reported in similar vein: "Beginning teachers who come to their first positions from the collegiate

training institutions are generally not well treated . . . . The newcomers take what is left over."

Houston and Felder (1982:457-458) have compared the breaking in of new teachers to the breaking in of horses in a western movie and they have stated their belief that the "introduction to teaching, the related trauma, and the lack of emotional and physical support stamp their impressions on almost all teachers." Bush (1983:1) has described the beginning years of teaching as "a deeply troubled part of the education profession."

In a study carried out by Pataniczek and Isaacson (1981:16), experienced teachers were asked if beginning teachers should be given special assistance. The replies contained little solace for the new teachers.

> . . . nearly two-thirds of secondary teachers in one study . . . advocated the immediate assumption of full responsibilities without special assistance. In interviews, many of these same teachers reported nightmarish tales of their own first years, yet saw this ordeal as a necessary step in their induction process.

What, then, enables beginning teachers to persist in their chosen occupation? Bush (1983:3) has told us that "new teachers develop a survival mentality. . . . The time is now ripe to do something substantial and far-reaching." This call has been echoed by Turner (1984:228): "It's time somebody really looked at that first year. It's a crucial time to our students!"

Specific Problems

Houston and Felder's (1983:457) report on comments from teachers reflecting on their induction will be familiar to many teachers:

"I would never have taught had I known what it was like."

"That first day of school was the most terrifying experience in my life."

"Lonely."

"Exhausting - bone-crushing exhaustion." These words of beginning teachers are familiar to *all* teachers.

Milne (1968:61) has given two examples of the comments he received while carrying out his beginning teacher study:

> Some of the things are difficult, not in themselves, but in finding the correct procedures and the time to do them. First year teaching sometimes seems a 36 hour a day job and many of the extras are necessarily by-passed to ensure the instruction of the basic curriculum which seems to grow each year.
>
> My biggest problem is lack of time and energy to do everything I would like to do.

Time pressures have been reported by Bradley and Eggleston (1978:89), Edmonds and Bessai (1979:28), Houston and Felder (1982:457) and Bush (1983:9). Problems with class control have been referred to by Ratsoy et al. (1979:65), Edmonds and Bessai (1979:28), Pataniczek and Isaacson (1981:14) and Veenman (1984:144). Lack of congruence between theory and practice has been offered by Bush (1983:11) as a problem for neophytes. Psychological difficulties, like anxiety and frustration, have been recorded by Houston and Felder (1982:458) and Bush (1983:14) who recorded the belief of some students that they had been inadequately prepared for teaching by the training institution. But Bush (1983:3) has defended the training institutions against this charge by pointing out that "there is much that cannot be learned until a teacher is in a natural classroom situation with full responsibility." Veenman (1984:166-167) has stoutly defended teacher education and has castigated authors who have unjustly attributed blame to them due to invalid conclusions being drawn from their studies. He has pointed out the impossibility of teacher training institutions being able to foresee all possible eventualities that their students will face as teachers.

Do Neophytes Want Assistance?

The literature has indicated that induction to teaching is a stressful experience for many neophytes. Burke and Schmidt (1984:71) have described the early days of teaching: "Alone in a classroom, with only trial and error as a guide, beginning teachers enter the profession of teaching with a hope and a prayer. Little formal assistance is available to teachers as they begin their careers." Castetter's definition of induction would seem to be quite inappropriate in the light of studies carried out on beginning teachers. But do they want to overcome their problems

on their own or do they hope for help? Horowitz (1978:7) has reported on the reflections of a group of teachers who had been his students a decade earlier: "Their one criticism is that their teacher education ended in the Spring of 1968 and did not continue during their most vulnerable period, the early years of teaching." Of course, for most beginners, this vulnerability, although possibly serious, was not necessarily fatal. Assistance, albeit informal, was generally available and Pataniczek and Isaacson (1981:16) have recorded that help was not sought from superiors but from trusted colleagues. This was probably due to the reluctance of the neophytes to have it officially known that they were not coping as they feared that evaluation of their competence would be adversely affected.

Horowitz (1984:5) has reported that "the beginning teacher will still need help and support." This has been echoed by Pansegrau (1984:245) who detected insecurity in beginning teachers and their need for inservice education to help them cope. Craig (1984:264), who observed two first year teachers in her study, has recorded how one of them commented "on her need for supervision in the early days of teaching." Turner (1984:229) has concluded from her study that the young teachers at times "seemed to have a need to share their experiences with some outsider they could trust."

It appears, then, that beginning teachers need someone they can trust, if not for professional help, then at least for emotional support. One of Horowitz's (1984:5) former students in a teacher education programme, after ten years of teaching, reflected on his early teaching years and asked him: "Why did you abandon us just when we needed you most?"

Induction Programs

There is no set format for induction programs nor is there any set duration. In the school context, some school districts find them unnecessary, others allow from one to five days while others again conceptualize induction as a career-long learning process. This last view is shared by Houle and Kramer as has been seen, and by Rebore (1982:137).

Gibson and Hunt (1965:82) have developed a taxonomy for induction. It is shown in Table II.1. They classify the new employees in terms of their career status and place of origin. A new engineering graduate who came from Montreal to Alberta for his first job would be in category 1, B/O. A teacher returning to the profession after an extended absence would belong to category 6, R/L if returning to the same system, and category 3, R/O, if taking up an appointment in a different system. A store manager from a small country branch taking up the manager's position in a large city store of a rival organization would be in category 2, C/O. Common sense would indicate that induction for category 1 personnel would probably be more difficult than for personnel in category 5 as the latter would have the advantages of experience and local knowledge.

Table II.1 Classification of New Staff Members by Origin and Career

Career \ Origin	Outsider	Local
Beginning	1 Beginning-outsider	4 Beginning-local
Continuing	2 Continuing-outsider	5 Continuing-local
Returning	3 Returning-outsider	6 Returning-local

Adapted from Gibson and Hunt (1965:82)

Induction programs are held to be important by the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Greene (1971:214) has recorded their four phase scheme to assist teachers taking up new positions. In brief these are:

1. Phase 1 - in the spring and summer prior to taking up duty, the teacher receives messages of reassurance and encouragement from an assigned co-operating teacher;

2. Phase 2 - normal school orientation program;

3. Phase 3 - during the first semester the beginning teacher and the co-operating teacher discuss practical teaching; and

4. Phase 4 - during the second semester, discussion is extended to further reaching concerns, theory, self-analysis.

Participants in Induction

Van Zwoll (1964:145) has given a comprehensive list of those who should participate in teacher orientation programs. In simplified form, the list would include the school board, central administration, principal, teachers, community, teachers' professional organization.

Moore (1966:46-47) and Greene (1971:214) have indicated how these different groups could make the new arrival feel welcome and fit easily into the new society. Eye and Lane (1956:229-241) have described, in great detail, how three different communities, Downer's Grove, Portland and Kenosha ran their induction programs.

The main function of any teacher is to instruct students. The schools that teachers teach in are accountable to, at least, the parents of the students they teach, for the quality of instruction that the students receive. Supervision of teachers is the method used to ensure that satisfactory levels of instruction are provided. Supervision is also used to assess the suitability of beginning teachers for full acceptance into the teaching profession. The induction of new teachers, then, is accompanied by some form of supervision.

The Place of Supervision in the Organization

Houle (1980:35) has not mentioned supervision specifically in his listing of administrative functions. He has, however, listed appraisal and development immediately below induction in the personnel function. This can be seen in Figure II.5. Castetter (1976:36) has categorized these subfunctions, appraisal and development, into plans, coordination and results. This is shown in Figure II.6.

More recent writings, for example, Blumberg (1983), Burke and Schmidt (1984), Glatthorn (1984) and Busch (1985) have used a function supervision, which would include for many the subfunctions appraisal and development. If this is accepted, then supervision is a

more complex concept than either appraisal or development. Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1980:17) have alluded to complexity in supervision when they observed that "the supervisor, through historical development, has been many things to many people. Perhaps therein lies part of the reason for the present confusion toward supervision per se." Blumberg (1983:15) has separated evaluation from supervision. Goldhammer et al. (1980:13) have made this additional comment on supervision: "Often linked with educational administration and invariably connected with the concept of educational leadership, supervision is today seen as that dimension of the teaching profession which is concerned with improving instructional effectiveness." Desbiens (1979:39) has a different understanding of supervision. In his address at a CEA seminar, he stated that, "without mincing words, the aim of supervision is to monitor what is being done." In terms of Houle and Castetter's appraisal and development, Goldhammer et al. are closer to Houle and Castetter's thinking than is Desbiens who has not allowed for development in the supervision function.

Models of Supervision

Models are developed mainly to help explain theories. Sistrunk and Love (1983:1) have observed: "It has become increasingly apparent that there are few, if any, complete, recognizable, generalizable theories of supervision. None of the theories known to the writer meet more than one or two of the ASCD criteria for a complete theory." The confusion which exists over what constitutes supervision is reflected in the variety of supervision models and the different attitudes of various groups to them. Lambert (1979:7) has commented on the situation in Canada:

> Within each of the provinces of Canada, there are different approaches to supervision from one area to another. These approaches are sometimes contested by the unions, sometimes put up with by teachers and sometimes defended and promoted by school administrators.

Glatthorn (1984:1) is an advocate of the multi approach to supervision in an attempt to meet more adequately the different needs that teachers have. Some of the different approaches used in supervision will be mentioned in order to indicate how divergent are the views held by writers

in the field of supervision.

Goldhammer et al. (1980:19,49) have advocated clinical supervision in which first-hand observations are made in the classroom. These observations are followed by face-to-face interaction between the supervisor and the teacher. The purpose of the interviews is to analyze what has been observed in the classroom with the aim of improving instruction. The supervisor must be skilful enough to detect anxiety in the teacher and sensitive enough to be aware of the teacher's feelings. Glatthorn has made a comment on one aspect of clinical supervision: "There is no conclusive evidence that clinical supervision improves the competent, experienced teachers. In fact, they often consider it the least useful of all the functions the supervisor can provide." Gitlin, Owaga and Rose (1984:47) have proposed horizontal evaluation strategies as a supervision technique. In horizontal evaluation, the supervisor tries to make clear the links between the long and short term intents of the teacher. In this way, those being supervised do not have to try and guess what is pleasing to the supervisor.

In an attempt to meet the different needs of teachers, Glatthorn (1984:1) has offered a differentiated system in which a limited number of choices is offered to the teacher "in the expectation that their individual choices will be more responsive to their special needs."

Irvine and Sullivan (1983:46,47) have proposed The Integrated Model for Training and Supervision (IMTS) for teachers. They make a number of claims for IMTS:

1. It incorporates a process and a value system which are concerned with teacher involvement and autonomy;
2. It meets accountability demands and state-mandated criteria for teacher competence;
3. IMTS emphasizes a humanistic, supportive approach to supervision while, at the same time, allowing for evaluating improvements in instruction; and
4. IMTS makes provision for counselling and human relations techniques within the supervisory process.

Glickman (1981) has proposed a scheme entitled *Developmental Supervision: Alternative Approaches for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction*. In this scheme teachers are categorized in two ways:

1. High or low levels of abstraction

2. High or low levels of commitment

This results in four possible categories. The scheme has three types of supervision:

1. Directive
2. Collaborative
3. Non-directive

Glickman's model suggested non-directive supervision for teachers rated high in levels of abstraction and commitment. Directive supervision was deemed necessary for teachers rated low in both levels of abstraction and commitment. Teachers who were rated high in one variable and low in the other would receive collaborative supervision.

Burke and Schmidt (1984:72) have written on an entry year assistance program which was devised by the Wisconsin Improvement Program. The assistance program has five major components, two of which are of particular interest:

> 2. Supervision and observation by university personnel. Retired university supervisors with extensive experience working with preservice students provide the supervision. The supervisors work more as consultants rather than supervisors for the first year teachers.
>
> 5. Development of a team support system including an experienced teacher as mentor, the principal, the university consultant and the beginning teacher.

Helping vs Evaluating

For the beginning teacher, supervision in practice is of great importance because, on it depend his job satisfaction and career prospects. The claim by Goldhammer et al. (1980:13) that the aim of supervision is to improve instructional effectiveness and Desbiens' (1979:39) view that it is to monitor what is going on, both suggest that knowledge of what is taking place in the classroom must be gained. This is done by supervisors visiting classrooms in order to watch teachers and children interact in the educational process. This is not always a happy experience for teachers. Goldhammer et al. (1980:13) have indicated a possible conflict of interests:

> Nearly all discussions of supervision in textbooks and periodicals over half a century have wrestled with the difficult problem of separating ***helping*** behaviors from

> *evaluating* behaviors on the part of supervisors, since the helping functions have most often been assigned to the same persons (principals, department heads, directors) who are at times responsible for employment, promotions, and/or salary decisions.

Irvine and Sullivan (1983:47) have listed some negative aspects of supervision: "Many classroom teachers see performance assessment for certification as threatening to their job security, dehumanizing, mechanistic, and indifferent to personal characteristics and individual teaching style." Goldhammer et al. (1980:14) have also perceived a tendency in teachers to regard the supervisor "as being somewhat of a threat." Glatthorn (1984:1-5) has recognized that teacher evaluation is a critical function of school administration but that it must be removed from the supervision of teachers. He has advocated that teachers be given a choice regarding the type of supervision they receive. He has recorded this research finding: "...the research that my doctoral students and I have carried out indicates that the differentiated system works best when teachers are given the choice of the four options, with the principal maintaining the right to veto any choice considered unwise." The four options in Glatthorn's differentiated system are: clinical supervision, cooperative professional development, self-directed development, and administrative monitoring. The principal's right of veto, in effect, reduces the ostensible reason for having a differentiated system. It is assumed that the principal does not inform the teacher prior to choosing, which choices the principal judges to be inappropriate. This disguises the true value of the choice given to teachers. As principals are often the supervisors for their own schools, it is not difficult to appreciate Blumberg's (1983:12) comment that a "principal who maintains that he or she is 'really a teacher like everyone else' is engaging in an exercise in self-delusion."

Glatthorn's offer of self-directed development would have no appeal for Desbiens (1979:30,35):

> That which is never assessed loses its value and becomes a sham....As far as the myth of self-evaluation or self-monitoring is concerned, it is high time we got rid of it. When you are the only one in a race, you always win.
>
> It is pointless to talk of supervision if teaching activities are not assessed and subject to some kind of outside control.

Earlier, horizontal evaluation was mentioned by Gitlin et al.. The same expression is used by

Desbiens (1979:35) but in a different sense: "Ideally, teachers should be judged by their peers, but this is not in keeping with today's customs. This sort of horizontal evaluation is hardly practiced any more." One year later teachers were encouraged to practise peer evaluation as part of the concept of coaching.

Joyce and Showers (1980:379) carried out a two year study regarding the ability of teachers to learn new teaching skills and strategies. One finding was: "The first message from that research is very positive: teachers are wonderful learners. Nearly all teachers can acquire new skills that 'fine tune' their competence. They can also learn a considerable repertoire of teaching strategies that are new to them." If the aim of supervision is to improve instructional effectiveness (Goldhammer et al., 1980:13) or to monitor what is taking place in the classroom (Desbiens, 1979:39), then coaching as described by Joyce and Showers (1980:384, 1982:6,7) would satisfy both conditions:

> Coaching can be provided by peers (other teachers), supervisors, professors, curriculum consultants, or others thoroughly familiar with the approaches. Coaching for application involves helping teachers analyze the content to be taught and the approach to be taken, and making very specific plans to help the student adapt to the new teaching approach.
>
> Ideally "coaching teams" are developed during the training process. If we had our way, *all* school faculties would be divided into coaching teams who regularly observe one another's teaching and provide helpful information, feedback, and so forth.
>
> When a group of four or six teachers observe each other regularly while they are trying out a model, they not only give technical feedback to each other, but receive it vicariously while they observe it being given.

Unfortunately, Tyson and Birnbrauer (1983:30) have defined it differently: "Coaching has been defined as individually helping a subordinate to improve job performance." However, according to Joyce and Showers, when teachers learn new skills, the impact of these new skills in the classroom situation is claimed to be made more effective by prior peer or other discussion in which analysis of new techniques is undertaken and then feedbck is received from observation of the application of the new technique by a number of teachers. Joyce and Showers (1982:6) have pointed out a positive outcome of this process, the gaining of companionship which helps to lessen the loneliness of teaching.

From the evidence presented, it appears that the emphasis of coaching is on changing skills already possessed, that is, coaching is essentially directed at experienced teachers. The allusion to companionship seems to be restricted to professional companionship with no indication of social interaction. The peer evaluation carries no indication of threat to the teacher being supervised. Coaching seems to address current problems only and apparently is not influenced by the career aspirations of those being coached. Further, although coaching can be applied on a one-to-one basis, Joyce and Showers prefer a group situation.

Other writers have identified a helping component in supervision. Blumberg (1983:17) has detected "that the human side of the supervision process is the recurring refrain of the whole enterprise." Goldhammer et al. (1980:13) have recorded that: "...in recent years there has emerged a strong emphasis upon helping teachers with problem-solving, with inter-personal relationships within the school, and the creation of a more humane atmosphere to surround children and the adults who teach them." The same writers (1980:49) have stressed the importance of rapport in clinical supervision. They have identified motivation and positive self-image as the foundations of rapport which they have described as positive feelings between people and as a reflection of the fact that people get along well together. Taken in context, the people referred to are the supervisor and the teacher.

Because beginning teachers are a subset of all teachers, the concerns of teachers about supervision are also the concerns of beginning teachers, and perhaps to a greater degree due to their lack of experience. An indication of how crucial supervision is in the career prospects of beginning teachers has been given by Irvine and Sullivan (1983:47) when they addressed the problem of teacher turnover:

> The turnover rate is particularly crucial for beginning teachers. It was recently reported that in the State of Georgia two out of three beginning teachers don't teach beyond the third year. The primary reason given for leaving...was "lack of supportive supervision."

From this brief survey of supervision methods, it is possible to find justification for the following comments:

1. Supervision may or may not include evaluation;

2. There is no suggestion that teachers can choose the supervisor;
3. There may be a choice of methods of supervision offered to the teacher;
4. The suggestion that teachers can perceive a threat in some methods of supervision can be detected;
5. Supervisors can experience role conflict between their helping and evaluating functions; and
6. Rapport between supervisor and teacher is not mentioned in most methods.

There has been a definite trend in recent years to reinforce the helping component of supervision (Goldhammer et al., 1980:13, Blumberg, 1983:17). Other ways in which help is offered will now be described in brief.

Professional Help

The problems attending induction to teaching have been well documented over a number of years. The literature appears to indicate that neophytes want and need someone to turn to, to learn from. Various proposals for meeting these needs have been suggested, and in some cases, implemented. Titles have been given to these schemes which may differ in content in large or small degree or even completely in concept.

1. *Teacher Induction Pilot Scheme (TIPS)*
   This was an ambitious programme which was intended to be implemented nationally in Britain. Economic conditions have caused its postponement. (Bolam, 1981, Bolan et al., 1979; cited in Veenman, 1984:165);

2. *Experienced Teachers*
   Bush (1983:17) has advocated using experienced teachers less with students and more with younger colleagues. Houston and Felder (1982:459) have reported on the use of experienced teachers in Colorado, California and Washington;

3. *Tutors*
   Bradley and Eggleston (1978:89) have written about the proposal for professional tutors in England;

4. *Master Teachers*
   The concept of master teacher has been described by Houston and Felder (1982:459, Griffin and Huskill (1983:98, Benningfield and Others (not named) 1984:1);

5. *Pre-induction Seminar*
   Houston and Felder (1982:459) have described how new teachers in Arlington, Texas, arrive several days before the start of the school year to take part in an orientation program;

6. *Consultants*

Houle (1980:113) has noted the use of consultants in education to assist new teachers. Confirmation of this has been given by Houston and Felder (1982:460);

7. *Buddy System*
   This system has been described by Edmonds and Bessai (1979:97) but its informality detracted from its success;

8. *Support System*
   Houston and Felder (1982:459) have noted teacher facilitators in Houston, Texas. Griffin and Huskill (1983:103) have reported on support teams in Florida. Craig (1984:265) has advocated support systems for beginning teachers both in school and out;

9. *Helping Teacher Program*
   Griffin and Huskill (1983:98) have noted this program in Lincoln, Nebraska; and

10. *Beginning Teacher Program*
    This program, in Florida, has been described by Griffin and Huskill (1983:102)

Although these programs have different names, they have much in common. They have been devised to counter the very real difficulties faced by so many beginning teachers. Bush (1983:19) has cited the California Commission on Teacher Preparation and Licensing in Communique, v1, n1, Feb. 1983:

> . . . the beginning years of teaching impose unique demands on teachers, and that effective support must be provided to new teachers as a result. . . . Preliminary preparation cannot fully prepare teachers to meet the unique demands of the first classroom teaching job. . . . There are many experienced teachers and administrators who would be willing to help, counsel, or guide beginning teachers. . . . The Commission believes that its reform proposals will enable beginning teachers to receive the professional assistance they need from those most capable to give aid at the time when it is critically needed.

Here we have recognition that problems exist for neophytes and that support is necessary. Also recognised are the limitations of even the best training. The availability of assistance to meet this career crisis point is indicated. Rebore's (1982:143) comment on professional help seems to represent, quite fairly, the views already expressed:

> In some school districts a new teacher is assigned to an experienced teacher during the first year of employment. The new teacher will then have a definite person to call on when questions arise about the curriculum or building procedures. This has proven to be a successful technique because the experienced teacher does not pose a threat to the new teacher, whereas an administrator might.

Perhaps this caution from Tyson and Birnbrauer (1983:30) is relevant: "We must like people and believe in them before we can help them." All this is commendable but is it enough? A young teacher needs more than professional help; he or she will probably need personal help

even more. Thus, to incorporate all the advantages contained in the schemes already mentioned, together with the hopes of the California Commission and a sensitivity towards the personal needs of the neophyte, the creation of a mentor system for neophyte teachers is offered as a possible solution.

Mentors: An Overview

Historical

Fagan and Walter (1982:117) have told us that "mentoring is nothing new or profound". Bova and Phillips (1982:1) have contributed that "the concept of mentoring is not a new one." Fagan and Walter's claim that mentoring is not profound may be surprising but their claim and that of Bova and Phillips that it is old is not. The story of Mentor appears first in Homer's *Odyssey*. Briefly, Mentor was the tutor and guardian of Telemachus, the son of Odysseus. Thus Mentor is seen as a father figure, a teacher and guide. In addition, Mentor was the goddess Athena in disguise and her great attribute was wisdom (Bova and Phillips, 1982:1, Daloz, 1983:25). Perhaps, then, we should append to the attributes of Mentor, wisdom and mother figure. Thus mentoring finds its genesis in Greek mythology.

Definition

DeAnda (1982:37) has described a mentor as "a person who provides a model, guidance, support and direction for his or her intern, student, apprentice." Most writers seem to favour the term *protege* when speaking about the recipient of the mentoring process. Yoder and Others (not named), (1982:1) used a simple description: "A mentor may be someone who is just one step ahead or who is a well-established professional." Kelly (1984b:50), in describing a study involving mentors, defined a mentor as:

> a more experienced and powerful individual who guides, advises, and assists in any number of ways the career of a less experienced, often younger, upwardly mobile protege in the context of a close professionally-centred relationship lasting one year or more.

A simpler definition was given by Temmen (1982:19): "A mentor is most commonly defined as a trusted counselor or guide, effective leader, role model, or one who offers career guidance."

In different words but with essentially the same meaning, Fagan and Walter (1982:113) have given this definition: "A mentor is an experienced adult who befriends and guides a less experienced adult. A mentor can offer support, advice and opportunity to a young adult." Wildman et al. (1986:9-10), who were working on an organized mentor program, defined a mentor from the responses from those they were training for the mentor role:

> The experienced teachers built a concept of mentoring that included a colleague who is:
> 1. willing and able to mentor
> 2. a good listener who was empathetic and nonjudgmental
> 3. knowledgeable about teaching and the school
> 4. gives advice judiciously
> 5. shares resources
> 6. confidential and trustworthy
> 7. positive about the profession
>
> These features were cited as critical for a successful mentor.

Krupp (984:1) has supplied the following three definitions:

> A mentor has been defined as a "trusted counselor and guide". (The Woodlands Group); as a "career guide and executive nurturer" in the private sector and as a "positive, supportive and more experienced guide" (George and Kummerow, 1981); as "trusted and experienced supervisors or advisors who have personal and direct interest in the development and/or education of younger or less experienced individuals, usually in professional education or professional occupations." (ERIC, 1980:145).

The most useful definition which has been found in this review of literature is from Clawson (1980:146):

> Thus the first mentor was an older, more experienced, and trusted individual who took an active interest in developing a younger person in every facet of his life and career. The first mentor-protege relationship had high levels of mutual respect, trust and affection - all of which contributed to the mutual commitment to the relationship.

Now that mentor has been defined for the purposes of this study, it is now possible to distinguish between mentorship and preceptorship. Although the relationship between the two concepts is close, differences between them have been clearly identified by Morrow (1984:3): "Preceptorship is based on the mentor concept used traditionally in industry and business . . . . Preceptorship differs somewhat from mentorship in that a shorter period of time is involved and the purpose of the relationship is rather specific."

Mentor-Protege Relationship

Three ways in which a mentor-protege relationship can be generated have been identified by Dodgson (1986:31):

> Mentorship relationships evolve in a variety of ways....the method of establishing a mentoring relationship fell into three definite categories: 1) serendipity, 2) mentor-seeking, and 3) protege-seeking. The literature supports these three methods of establishing a mentoring relationship.

Levinson (1979:97) has described the mentor relationship as one of the most complex, and developmentally important, a man can have in early adulthood. As an adolescent boy approaches early adulthood, Levinson (1979:93) saw the necessity of a Dream for him and "two of the most important figures in this drama [Dream] are the *mentor* and the *special woman.*"

Sheehy (1977:189), too, recognized the Dream.

> For a man in his twenties, the mentor, a guide who regards him as a younger adult but not as a boy or a son, supports the young man's dreams and puts it into effect in the world. He is a nonparental career-role model. Clawson (1980:148) has spoken about the necessity of comprehensiveness and mutuality before an association can properly be called a mentor-protege relationship, for he has averred that "the more a relationship is characterized by comprehensiveness and mutuality, the more it is a mentor-protege relationship.

Wildman et al. (1986:7) have written on desirable mentor qualities when the beginning teacher has no choice concerning who the mentor will be: "Teachers selected as mentors or 'colleagues' should be be experienced, be recommended by their building principal, be reasonably close to the beginning teacher for day to day access, and be at least acceptable to the beginning teacher as a colleague." Kram (1985:184) has also considered the implications when the young teacher has no influence concerning the choice of mentor: "Voluntary participation in a mentoring program reduces the risk of a destructive relationship; it cannot, however, eliminate the negative reactions from those who were not selected to participate or from those who are affected by the arranged relationships." Krupp (1984:1) has added: "The generative adult over age forty who has dealt with the destructive nature of existence is ripe to mentor younger persons looking in their twenties for a teacher, guide or sponsor." Runions and Smyth (1985:5) have also asked about the mentor-protege relationship.

> What are mentorships? They are learning partnerships between two or more individuals who wish to share or develop a mutual interest. The mentor serves as an advisor, a guide, a networker, a role model to a learner who seeks to explore the mentor's experience.

Houle (1980:115) has cited Lord Jackson on this topic:

> And yet it is disappointing to observe how many men are apparently unable or unwilling to appreciate [that] the difficulties and frustrations their junior colleagues are experiencing are much the same as they themselves had complained about at an earlier date, and to recognize that they have a responsibility toward their junior colleagues and subordinates.

Gehrke and Kay (1984:24) have made the same point in the particular case of teachers: "Thus the most disturbing discovery of our admittedly limited study is that few teachers become mentors for other teachers at any point in the preparation and induction period, even although they express a desire to do so."

The following aspects about the mentor-protege relationship have been identified:

1. Mutual choice is advocated;
2. The relationship extends beyond professional interest;
3. There is no evidence of threat;
4. There is mutual need;
5. There is little evidence in the literature that mentoring has disadvantages for the protege;
6. There is evidence of affection; and
7. There is evidence of trust.

It appears, then, that the acquisition of a mentor is important for the young. It is therefore important that people offer themselves to act as mentors. But the role is not for everyone. Levinson (1979:148) has recorded that "...the developmental work of Becoming One's Own Man is essential in moving further and acquiring the maturity to be a wise mentor."

Benefits for the Mentor

The benefits of the mentor-protege relationship do not go completely to the protege. There are rewards for the mentor too. Some of these have been reported on by Levinson

(1979:253):

> Being a mentor with young adults is one of the most significant relationships available to a man in middle adulthood. The distinctive satisfaction of a mentor lies in furthering the development of young men and women - facilitating their efforts to form and live out their Dreams, to lead better lives according to their own values and abilities....He needs the recipient of mentoring as much as the recipient needs him.

Kram (1985:3) too, has described benefits to the mentor: "Through helping others, a mentor gains internal satisfaction, respect for his or her capabilities as a teacher and advisor, and reviews and reappraises the past by participating in a young adult's attempts to face the challenges of early career years." Sheehy (1977:265) has spoken in much the same vein about men in their fifties: "Their emphasis changed dramatically from making money and winning awards to caring about people, which included concern for their children, teaching and consulting, and often becoming mentors for younger men." Levinson would have no quarrel with this age range for mentors as he himself believed that although "a man can serve various mentor functions in early adulthood,...it is hard to become a mentor in a fuller sense until the forties" (Levinson, 1979:237). Using the Levinson model, the complete mentor must have passed through the Mid-Life Transition successfully. Krupp (1984:22) has reported that "persons in mentoring relationships felt better about both their personal lives and their professional performance." Mentor relationships do not go on for ever. "Sooner or later every apprentice must refute the absolute power of the mentor" (Sheehy, 1977:192). And further:

> As a man must give up the ladder and the Dream in their early adult forms, so must he give up the mentor. After the early forties it is almost impossible to be a protege, though one can always use good counsel and friendship. It is time to become more of a mentor oneself.
>
> (Levinson, 1979:252)

Importance of the Relationship

If the importance of a subject can be measured by the attention given to it by writers, then, not only is mentoring important, it is growing in importance. Adverse criticism about mentoring is hard to find in the literature. Krupp (1984:2) has commented on research into mentoring:

Although mentoring research has been criticized for its lack of clear conceptualization of what is being measured or offered for success (Merriam, 1983), present research does document the the positive effect of mentoring relationships on both protege and mentor.

Research in the area of mentor-protege relationships has resulted in the generation of many creative programs in the field of continuing professional education, according to Houle (1980:212). This important development in continuing education is reflected in Krupp's (1984:5) question: "Might mentoring relationships help to spark our aging personnel in public education while it helps younger teachers improve school climate?"

Recognizing the importance of the mentor-protege relationship will be simply an academic exercise unless the concept is embraced by the schools. Krupp (1984:21) has appealed to educators to legitimize mentoring. Effective implementation of mentor-protege relationships in schools needs more than mere official approval. This has been illustrated by Zey (1985:53) in his question about what Merrill Lynch, AT & T, Johnson and Johnson, Federal Express, the Internal Revenue Service and the U.S. Army have in common: "All have abandoned the hope that mentoring relationships would develop by themselves and have implemented policies to actively develop mentor programs." Having established mentor program, Zey (1985:57) has reported that the most effective program are those in which the partners are allowed to choose each other freely. Kram (1985:184) has identified another component related to formal mentoring progams: "Negative mentoring experiences, in which either colleague feels undermined, smothered, or abandoned, can be minimized by making participation in a formal mentoring system voluntary."

Counselling Component

Counselling Theories

It is not intended to list, nor to examine at depth, all the schools of thought regarding counselling. The intention is simply to indicate that problems can be viewed from different perspectives and that a knowledge of a variety of techniques allows the counsellor to choose the

most appropriate method for helping the one in need.

1. *Existentialism:* Corey (1982:65) has summed this theory up as follows: "Existentialist therapists are primarily concerned with understanding the present personal and subjective world of the client, to help that person come to new understandings and options." Existentialists do not believe that we are prisoners of our past; they believe we have the capacity to change what we are and strive to become the people we would like to be.
2. *Gestalt theory:* The client is forced to face up to his or her present and past problems. The therapist reacts instantly and honestly to the input of the client. The aim is to make the client self-supporting instead of the client relying on external support.
3. *Transactional analysis (TA):* The client is made aware of the impact made on children by parental injunctions, especially on decision making by the children. Approved decisions are rewarded by parents (strokes). Corey (1982:124) has commented on strokes: "Positive stroking is essential for healthy psychological development. It takes the form of expressions of affection or appreciation. If strokes are authentic, then we are nourished." TA examines how our lives have been shaped by injunctions, stroking, interactions (games). This constitutes our life script. TA insists that we do not need to accept our life sript. We can change it by *redecisions.*
4. *Rogerian therapy:* This is person-centred therapy. Rogers believed that the client knew better than the expert where the hurt lay. Corey 1982:86) has listed the six conditions that Rogers deemed to be necessary and sufficient for achieving personality change:

   a. The two persons are in psychological contact
   b. The client is in a state of incongruence
   c. The therapist is congruent in the relationship
   d. The therapist gives unconditional positive regard to the client
   e. The therapist is empathetic and can communicate with the client
   f. The client must recognize the therapist's regard and empathy

5. *Reality therapy:* The focus here is on behaviour, not feelings. Unlike most other therapies, reality therapy insists that moral values are crucial when behavioural change is sought.
6. *Rational-emotive therapy (RET):* Compared with many other therapies, RET is quite

radical. Rapport between the therapist and the client is frequently minimized. Feelings are not emphasized but thinking is. The therapy is highly directive.

Counselling by Mentors

Mentors probably lack formal training in counselling theories and techniques. It is not denied that such training is highly desirable but there is evidence to suggest that it is not necessary. Counselling is not an exact science, it is an art. It allows for intuition, feelings, thought, natural gifts and such like nebulous attributes. Corey (1982:285) has said that "it is important that we accept that there is no *right way* of therapy."

To emphasize his belief that formal training is not necessarily the progenitor of the accomplished counsellor, he has said that "in many ways, I believe you, as a counsellor or therapist, are your very best technique" (Corey, 1982:240). He has reinforced this belief that qualifications do not mean the same thing as competence in this statement: "...I have worked with some unlicensed colleagues and and even some undergraduate students who seemed far more competent than some licensed counselors, psychologists, and social workers." (Corey, 1982:249)

Glasser (1965:xxvii,24,192) has allowed that people without formal qualifications can be effective therapists. The preference for certain personal qualities over academic performance has been expressed by Rogers (1969:254,316) and has also been more generally commented upon by Corey (1982:81). In describing the existentialist approach to therapy, Corey (1982:220,221) has said that "there is no expert, for both the client and the therapist are said to grow from the therapeutic encounter."

Suggested Theories

It was mentioned earlier that effective counselling and therapy differed in intensity, not in kind. For this reason, some theories would be inappropriate for untrained mentors to attempt to use. To illustrate this, Corey's comment is relevant:

> Because the therapist has a large degree of power by virtue of persuasion and directiveness, psychological harm is more possible in RET than in the less directive

person-centered approach.

(Corey, 1982:182)

It is obvious, too, that psychoanalytic approaches are beyond the competence of mentors. Corey (1982:92) has suggested a safe way for mentors: "For a person with limited background in counseling psychology, personality dynamics, and psychopathology, the person-centered approach offers assurance that prospective clients will not be psychologically harmed."

If we accept Corey's advice, two theorists spring to mind, Rogers and Glasser. Corey (1982:193) has suggested that "reality therapy seems well suited to brief interventions in crisis-counseling situations...." Stallings (1984:168), too, has suggested Glasser's techniques as helpful for beginning teachers:

> Problems of an interpersonal nature need to be solved. Glasser's *Schools Without Failure* (1969) offers group problem solving methods and techniques to help students develop responsibility for their own behaviour....While there is little systematic research on the Glasser program, survey data (1977) indicate fewer referrals to the office, fighting, or suspensions among students in classes implementing this program.

Glasser (1965:204) has recorded the growing interest in reality therapy among teachers, administrators and counsellors in schools. Kram (1985:36) has described how a mentor can assist a younger colleague in a personal matter:

> The more experienced senior colleague provides a sounding board for this self-exploration, offers personal experience as an alternative perspective, and helps resolve problems through feedback and active listening. Through this process the junior colleague is able to cope with personal concerns more effectively.

Ethics

Frankena (1963:3) has described ethics as a branch of moral philosophy. Moral philosophers seek to find out why one act is right or good while another is wrong or bad. They wonder if a particular judgement can be applied universally or if there are exceptions which would nullify what was thought to have been a universal rule.

Immegart and Burroughs (1970:476) have said that "if we allow our minds to be governed by reason, we can know the moral law." They extended this belief by declaring that "rational beings act in conformity with the moral law." Thus, according to Frankena and

Immegart and Burroughs, moral knowledge is the product of the use of reason. This poses a problem. If I reason, I am rational. If I reason, I can find the moral law. If I am rational, I act in conformity with the moral law. If all people reason in the same way, then there will be agreement about what constitutes the moral law. But we have different powers of reasoning. This suggests that full knowledge of the moral law will be denied those with diminished reasoning powers. Is this, then, an explanation for the existence of different codes of behaviour? Does it explain how the same act can be judged differently? Is moral behaviour an absolute or a subjective matter?

Personal Ethics

Apfel and Weaver (1981:1) have described ethics as a "discipline dealing with what is good and bad and with duty; a set of moral principles or values." Immegart and Burroughs (1970:472) have said that "ethics involves values concerning one's moral character" and have cited Fulmer's belief that that ethics is "a system of moral principles."

Duty connotes an act of some kind and principles suggest a basis for decision making before the act is performed. Immegart and Burroughs (1970:486) have suggested that a personal philosophy of morals is required so that the rationality of moral decisions can be judged. How then does one acquire this personal moral code? Thomas, Murrell and Chickering (1982:35) have written: "Historically, the community, the church and the extended family have been the primary agencies of socialization and consequently value development." McBee (1982:35) has identified the contribution made by colleges and universities "as standard bearers of moral and ethical behaviour."

Importance of Personal Ethics

The literature surveyed has uncovered three writers who have found justification for the acquiring of a personal code of ethics. Brown (1980), cited by Thomas et al. (1982:6) have observed:

> Student development is concerned with the intellectual, emotional, moral, physical and social dimensions of student life. A critical dimension of this development is that of

> personal identity wherein one's value system is subsumed. Thus, student development and value development are inextricably bound together.

This is a view which allows the possibility of the formation of a set of values from a non-rational starting point. The value system apparently could develop insidiously as other aspects of the student develop. Of course, this would not be the general case in which developing reasoning powers would be applied in the formation of a personal moral philosophy.

Thomas et al. (1982:9) have tended towards a psychological justification for the importance of a personal set of moral values. Their end finding was that behaviour is the outcome of the values held by individuals. If behaviour is important, then so too is the possession of a personal set of values:

> Given this close scrutiny of one's values, the individual is faced with establishing or re-establishing a set of values which hold significance and work. This is an important task since one's values are often perceived as one's calling card. They are what one stands and fights for. Once articulated, one is then compelled to match her words with her behavior, constantly.

An economic justification has been recorded by Immegart and Burroughs (1970:473): "A person's moral reputation may well destroy what might be a promising career."

These three viewpoints, distinctly different in type, indicate clearly that sufficient reason exists to make the acquisition of a personal set of values an important matter. To these could be added the thought that each of us has to live with his or her self. If we are living by a code that gives meaning and happiness to our lives, then the basis on which we make our decisions which result in that happiness is very important to us. Our personal code of ethics is one of our most important possessions because our worldly happiness depends on it.

Professional Ethics

Organizations and professions are created to meet human needs. The personnel who function in these groups have their own personal codes of ethics. This can be a source of difficulty. Professions have tried to overcome this problem by drawing up a code of ethics for the guidance of practitioners when they encounter situations which involve ethical considerations. A professional code of ethics is an attempt to provide an acceptable, albeit

compromised, set of standards for the practice of the profession.

Apfel and Weaver (1981:3) have stated their belief that "ethics deals with moral conduct, duty and judgment" and, using this as a base, have defined a code of ethics as "the standard to which a professional adheres." Individual breaches of a professional code of ethics are generally dealt with by fellow members of the profession and they have, as the ultimate sanction, the right to exclude the non-conformist from the professional organization (Apfel and Weaver, 1981:3). It was stated earlier that a professional code of ethics was a compromise and herein lies a possible source of conflict.

Personal Ethics vs Professional Ethics

Consider these two statements on personal and professional ethics by Immegart and Burroughs (1970:474,483):

> Folllowing a professional code of ethics or the law does not make one moral.

and

> Perhaps the highest of moral acts is when a person who makes a decision of conscience assumes responsibility for it. Moral strength is measured by the willingness of the person to stand by these freely expressed moral convictions regardless of the odds.

Thus, if following a professional code of ethics does not make one moral, such an immoral person will have no compunction about breaking the code if convenience were suited. Similarly, a moral person might feel obliged to break the professional code for reasons of conscience. It is easy to conjure up examples of such conflict in the field of medicine. Cohen (1982:12) reported on a conference on ethics: "It appears that many individuals are assisted in dying because they are mentally retarded. When these individuals have a physical anomaly, such as an intestinal obstruction, or heart defect, it becomes convenient to end their lives." What a conglomerate of elements Cohen has given us for examination with respect to morality: quantity, euphemism, mental imperfection, physical imperfection, convenience.

McMillan and Shertzer (1978:31) have provided a different, but nevertheless interesting, problem. They have made the point that the codes of professional ethics for

counsellors cannot rule on all the contingencies that a counsellor might meet, so, in such cases, individual counsellors must act according to their own codes of personal ethics. Corey (1982:246) has commented on ethics: "I take the position that you will ultimately have to discover your own guidlines for responsible practice, and that as a professional you will not be able to rely on ready-made answers or prescriptions given from professional organizations." Levinson (1979:10) has reported that, in his study, "confidentiality and other ethical issues were of great importance to us." The probability of ethical difficulty in these situations is readily apparent.

Conclusion

Beginning teachers enter the profession about the same time as they are in one of Levinson's transition stages. The concurrence of these two events may be responsible for problem generation for young teachers. No matter the reason, the literature is convincing that neophyte teachers do encounter difficulties, and for many, finding suitable solutions for their troubles in an acceptable time is beyond their competence. Many are too embarrassed to seek help, or they refrain because of fear of adverse judgement by peers or superiors. But they ardently desire help and they need help, if not for professional reasons, then for humanitarian reasons.

Various schemes have been tried under a variety of names. It may even be that the same scheme has been used under two or more different names. It is probably safe to assume that all the schemes have a very high degree of overlap in their content and very probably much of this content will be found in mentoring which is offered as a possible solution available at the moment for the problems encountered by beginning teachers.

Clawson (1980:144) has reported that "there has been an explosion of interest in recent years in mentor-protege relationships" and even although definitions of a mentor have differences, there is a general understanding of what a mentor is. Basically a mentor is a more experienced, trustworthy, caring, sensitive, competent and non-threatening fellow professional

when viewed from the perspective of the neophyte. When the beginning teacher who has difficulties finds such a person, in or out of the organizational structure of the school, and, if mutual liking and trust exist, then we have a high probability that the turbulence generated by trouble will be quelled allowing a first class, smooth passage to professional competence.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

This study sought the perceptions of beginning teachers in secondary schools in Alberta, of the advantages and disadvantages of having a mentor during the initial year of teaching. Data were sought by questionnaire and by personal interview.

Ethical Considerations

The procedures carried out in this study were in accord with the booklet *Research Ethics Review Policies and Procedures* which was issued by the Department of Educational Administration in July, 1985. In particular, fully informed and voluntary consent was obtained before data collection began. Anonymity of the respondents and the confidentiality of the responses were safeguarded. However, as it was proposed to ask some respondents for an interview, all participants were asked for permission to put a code number on the questionnaires for identification purposes. Care was taken to see that the list matching numbers with names did not become available to unauthorized people.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was specially constructed for the purposes of this study in order to address the seven problem statements. Nevertheless, a debt is due to a number of writers whose works about beginning teachers were extremely useful in its compilation. A short description of the works used follows.

Eye and Lane (1956:197-275) have written about induction difficulties faced by neophyte teachers;

a. Informatiom to New Teachers;
b. The New Staff Member Can Help;
c. How the Staff Can Help New Teachers;
d. Good Human Relations Build a Professional Group;
e. The Community and Its New Teachers;
f. New Teachers Should Be Well Informed;
g. Pupil Progress and the Teacher's Success;
h. Personal and Professional Relationships; and
i. The Importance of Professionalism.

On the same theme, Castetter (1976:211-215) has offered:

a. Community Adjustment;
b. Position Adjustment;
c. School System Adjustment;
d. Adjustment to Individuals and Groups; and
e. Personal Adjustment.

Harris (1975:207) has recorded the results of a study done by Fuller in which concerns of trainee teachers were identified. Some of these are relevant:

a. Parents of Pupils;
b. School Situation;
c. Subject Matter;
d. Grading of Pupils;
e. Discipline;
f. Attitudes Towards Self; and
g. Methods.

Rebore (1982:141-144) has produced this model:

a. The School District;
b. The Community;
c. The School Building and Program; and
d. Personal Adjustment.

A different view of the same theme has been described by Neagley and Evans (1980:256-258):

a. Becoming Acquainted with the Community;
b. Getting to Know the School System, Its People, and Its Organization;
c. Learning About the School to Which Assigned; and
d. Adjusting to the Teaching Job.

From these sources, a composite model was constructed to fit the requirements of this study better:

a. Adjustment to the Community;
b. Adjustment to the School System (School District, Division, or County);
c. Adjustment to the School;
   - Physical Plant
   - Organization
   - Pupil Services and Variety of Needs
   - School Philosophy
   - School Programme
   - Adjustment to Professional and Support Staff
d. Adjustment to the Classroom;
   - Curriculum
   - Pupils
   - Methods
   - Evaluation
   - Organization
   - Plant and Equipment
e. Adjustment to the Field of Education; and
f. Adjustment to the New Role.

The format of Sections A - G is based on Sadownyk's (1983) thesis. Questions, question style and topics were very much influenced by works by Neagley and Evans (1980), Ratsoy (1970) and Ratsoy, McEwen and Caldwell (1979). Housego and Boldt (1985:116) used the critical incidents technique in their study in which the incidents could have been of a positive or negative nature. This generated in this study the term, critical events, which has been used to denote events which were of a negative nature only. The stimulus provided by the works of these writers is freely acknowledged and their works gratefully used.

Five doctoral students each filled in a questionnaire and commented on its appropriateness. As a result of this, two major and three minor changes were made. Ten relatively inexperienced teachers each filled in an amended questionnaire. The only suggestion of consequence received from this source was to print the general instructions on the front page and not at the beginning of each section. This valuable suggestion was slightly amended by placing the general instructions immediately before Section B, the first relevant section. All other comments from the ten young teachers were very encouraging.

The researcher consulted at length with his advisor concerning the wording and positioning of questions in the instrument. A significant change was to alter Likert scales to 0 1 2 3 4 from 1 2 3 4 5. This change made the explanation of the numbers more meaningful at the

low end of the scale.

Sample

In an attempt to keep the study within the capabilities of the researcher, about one hundred and twenty beginning teachers, in three categories, were sought. Specifically, forty teachers in each of the following teacher categories were sought in urban, suburban and rural secondary schools in Alberta:

a) Teachers who completed their first teaching year in June, 1985;

b) Teachers who started their first teaching year in September, 1985;

c) Interns who started their internship in September, 1985.

Assistance in this search was sought from appropriate school districts. The search was confined to a radius of eighty kilometres from Edmonton. Stratification was used in order to have roughly the same number of teachers spread over the three distinct geographical areas, namely, urban, suburban and rural.

Data Collection

Thirty-four jurisdictions were identified within 80 kilometres of Edmonton. Thirty superintendents were contacted by the researcher who wrote a letter to each of them. This letter briefly described the purpose of the study. A supporting letter from Dr. E.W. Ratsoy was enclosed. The remaining four superintendents were contacted, using a mandatory form, through the Field Services Division of the Faculty of Education. Replies were received from all thirty-four jurisdictions. Three categories were used to describe the jurisdictions. Edmonton Public and Separate School Boards made up the urban group. Jurisdictions which composed the suburban group were those outside Edmonton but which could be contacted by a local telephone call from Edmonton, for example, Sherwood Park. All the other jurisdictions were regarded as belonging to the rural group. This resulted in two urban jurisdictions, eleven suburban jurisdictions and sixteen rural jurisdictions.

From these twenty-nine jurisdictions, the names and locations of 223 beginning and intern teachers were received. Each of these neophyte teachers was allotted to a teacher group according to experience and status. Those who began their first teaching year in September 1984 were referred to as second year teachers and those who began in September 1985 were referred to as first year teachers. Intern teachers who began their internship in September 1985 were referred to as interns or intern teachers. The outcome of this allocation was that, in the urban group there were thirteen second year teachers, fourteen first year teachers and sixteen intern teachers. For the suburban group, the composition was twenty-four second year teachers, thirty-eight first year teachers and twenty-two intern teachers. The rural group had thirty-three second year teachers, forty first year teachers and twenty-three intern teachers. Number were allotted to the 223 names in the following manner:

1. The 70 second year teachers were numbered from 100 - 170
2. The 92 first year teachers were numbered from 200 - 292
3. The 61 intern teachers were numbered from 300 - 361

This allowed instant identification of the category to which a teacher belonged. At the time this was done, it was not realized that the numbers did not assist in identifying the type of area in which the teacher taught. This problem was recognized later and a solution found.

A table of random numbers was used to select 44 suburban teachers and 45 rural teachers. All urban teachers were used as the total number received was little more than the number sought. Teachers in the urban group were spread over 28 schools, those in the suburban group, over 29 school and those in the rural group, over 27 schools. Telephone calls were made to the 57 schools housing the urban and suburban teachers. Messages were left asking the teachers in the sample to return the phone call. The purpose of the return call was to explain the study to them and to seek their cooperation. Of the possible total of 43 urban teachers, 36 responded to the initial call and accepted the invitation to join the study. A follow-up elicited two responses, one acceptance and one rejection. Of the possible total of 44 suburban teachers, 27 responded to the initial call. There were 25 acceptances and two wrongly included

experienced teachers. A follow-up call elicited 6 responses all of which supported the study.

In the main, contact with rural teachers, was made by mail. Letters were prepared and sent to 20 schools in order to make initial contact with 35 rural teachers. One letter was sent to a jurisdiction in order to contact 6 of their teachers and one was sent to a private address. A telephone call to one school recruited a teacher. One jurisdiction sent the names of three volunteers from one school and of these three, the random selection process retained two. Forty-one brief descriptions of the study were enclosed with the 22 letters which were sent out and principals were requested to give these descriptions to teachers whose names had been selected by random sampling. The purpose of the study description was to advise the relevant teachers of the nature of the study and of the researcher's impending arrival to seek their cooperation.

All participants were told that about fifteen of them would be asked to grant an interview at a later stage. No one rejected this possibility of being asked to participate in such an interview. This necessitated the devising of a means of identifying the authors of the completed questionnaires. The obvious solution was to use the numbers which had already been allotted to the participants. Permission was sought, either directly or indirectly, from each member of the sample to put a code number on the cover page of the questionnaire, and this was unanimously agreed to.

The questionnaires were hand delivered to all the schools in which the beginning teachers in the study taught. The main purpose for these school visitations was to meet as many of the teachers in the sample as possible in order to thank them for their cooperation. It was thought that this method would have the additional benefit of encouraging the respondents to complete the questionnaires quickly and to return them in the stamped addressed envelopes in which they were enclosed on delivery. To visit the urban schools took 1.5 days, the suburban schools required 2 days and the rural schools, 4 days. The total distance covered in distributing the questionnaires was in excess of 1500 kilometres.

Data Collection

A total of 127 questionnaires was hand delivered to more than 80 schools from 26 November 1985 to 13 December 1985. Completed questionnaires were received from 3 December 1985 to 23 January 1986. The number of questionnaires returned was 117 which is a little over 90 percent return rate. Unfortunately, mainly through an oversight on the researcher's part, 15 questionnaires were judged to be unusable. Thus, for the purposes of the study, 102 returns were received from a total of 112 which represents a return rate of more than 90 percent. For convenience, the size of the usable questionnaire return, 102, will for the remainder of the study be referred to as the sample. The sample provided nearly equally sized groups in terms of the three teacher types and the three locations.

All completed questionnaires were read and categories were listed to accommodate, as accurately as possible, the responses to open-ended questions. To cover the variety of subjects taught, 44 categories were required. A similar number was needed to do justice to the different types of problem which the beginning teachers reported and when these problems were discussed with helpers, the outcomes were compressed into a list of 22. The types of people from whom help was sought required 27 description labels. The nature of informal conversations between beginning teachers and their helpers was contained under 12 general headings. The respondents were asked to list qualities which they thought such helpers ought to have. This generated 68 qualities which were deemed to be necessary to reflect, in a fair way, the qualities offered by the neophyte teachers. Finally, information was sought on the advantages and disadvantages experienced in the mentor relationship during the first teaching year. These required listings of 23 and 42 respectively.

At this stage of the study an interrater reliability estimation was carried out by the researcher and the research assistant. The estimation was arrived at using the method described by Goodwin and Goodwin (1985:7):

> This article's first author coded all the articles. Interrator reliability estimation was based on a 10 percent sample of the articles stratified by year; the second author independently coded each of these articles, using the same guidelines, operational definitions for major and minor and so on. To calculate the interrator reliability

estimate, the following formula was applied: (number of coding agreements)/(number of coding agreements plus number of coding disagreements).

In order to match the sample percentage used by Goodwin and Goodwin (1985:7) and to have a number divisible by 3 to improve the evenness of the sample, 9 questionnaires were drawn by random stratification to ensure a questionnaire from each stratum was included. A further 3 were chosen, one from each teacher category and representing each geographical area. The total sample of 12 from the 102 usable returns represented a sample in excess of 11 percent.

The researcher coded answers to 207 open-ended questions in the 12 sample questionnaires using the already determined categories. The same 12 sample questionnaires were independently coded by the research assistant. Comparison of the two codings showed that agreement occurred 187 times out of a possible 207. From the formula used by Goodwin and Goodwin, the interrator reliability estimate between the researcher and the research assistant was 90 percent.

Reference was made earlier to the way in which respondents were given a code number. At the suggestion of the research assistant, respondents were allotted numbers according to the following scheme:

1. Numbers 100 - 199 were reserved for urban second year teachers
2. Numbers 200 - 299 were reserved for urban first year teachers
3. Numbers 300 - 399 were reserved for urban intern teachers

A similar allocation of numbers, 400 - 699, was used for second year, first year and intern suburban teachers and the range 700 - 999, was used for second year, first year and intern rural teachers.

Bogdan and Biklen (1982:135) have described an interview as a "purposeful conversation." They have pointed out that the interview may be the dominant method of data collection or it may be used in conjunction with other methods. They have listed document analysis as a suitable partner for an interview and have described the purpose of the interview thus: ". . . the interview is used to gather descriptive data in the subject's own words so that the researcher can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world." This is

appropriate for the present study.

A. Types of Interview

Interviews can be divided into three classes:

1. structured
2. semi-stuctured
3. unstructured

Borg and Gall (1983:443) have issued a caution concerning unstructured interviews: "The graduate student can very seldom employ the unstructured interview in his research because skilled use of the technique requires a great deal of training and expertise." Bogdan and Biklen (1982:71) have made comment on what they perceive to be a misuse of qualitative methods. This perception is relevant to structured interviews in that structured interviews lend themselves readily to quantitative methods:

> Qualitative studies that report how many people do this and how many people do that, rather than generating concepts and understanding, are not highly regarded by qualitative researchers. More accurately, they are a poor use of qualitative resources when such data can be collected more easily and cheaply using other methods.

If not from choice, then by default, the graduate student is left with the semi-structured interview as the only type of interview to use after the analysis of the contents of returned questionnaires.

B. Triangulation

If data have already been collected by questionnaire and analyzed, it seems a valid question to ask why interviews need to be held at all. A justification for this double approach to the collection of data is called triangulation which Guba (1981:87) has described as "collecting data from a variety of perspectives, using a variety of methods. . . . " Jick (1979:603-604) has shown his support for triangulation: "Elements of the context are illuminated. In this sense, triangulation may be used not only to examine the same phenomenon from multiple perspectives but also to enrich our understanding by allowing for new or deeper

dimensions to emerge." He has also alluded to another possible outcome of triangulation by pointing out that "triangulation may also help to uncover the deviant or off-quadrant dimensions of a phenomenon" (Jick, 1979:609). Guba and Lincoln (1982:186) have also referred to triangulation as a multi-methodological collection of data. The same authors (1982:257), citing Webb et al. (1966), are convinced that "the most persuasive evidence comes through a triangulation of measurement processes." Guba (1981:86) has indicated another strength of triangulation:

> . . . two or more methods are teamed in such a way that the weakness of one is compensated by the strengths of another. But it is clear that if similar results are found using different methods the case for stability is also strengthened (Guba, 1978; Guba and Lincoln, in press).

A somewhat similar view of triangulation had been earlier expressed by Jick (1979:604): "Although it has always been observed that each method has assets and liabilities, triangulation purports to exploit the assets and neutralize, rather than compound, the liabilities."

C. The Semi-Structured Interview

In this study, data collection was carried out using two distinct methodologies. This was done in the hope of achieving the benefits already ascribed to triangulation. The dominant data collection method was the use of questionnaires. The minor method was by interviewing a sample of the study sample. Previously, mention was made that the graduate student was almost obliged to use a semi-structured interview if interviews were to be held at all. Be this as it may, the semi-structured interview has its supporters. Borg and Gall (1983:442) have written:

> The semi-structured interview, therefore, has the advantage of being reasonably objective while still permitting a more thorough understanding of the respondent's opinions and the reasons behind them than would be possible using the mailed questionnaire.

With less enthusiasm, Bogdan and Biklen (1982:136) have recorded: "With semi-structured interviews you are confident of getting comparable data across *subjects*, but you lose the opportunity to understand how the subjects themselves structure the topic at hand."

Bugher (1980:2), the writer of the PACE manual has written on the proved benefits to the researcher of face-to-face interviewing:

> The person-to-person interview is best for obtaining in-depth opinions. Evidence from thousands of surveys over the years reveals that people are remarkably honest and frank when asked their opinions within a context that is properly structured - that is, 1) when the respondent knows the purpose of the interview, 2) when the questions are properly worded, and 3) complete anonymity is guaranteed with respect to the interviewee's responses. These conditions can best be met through personal contact.

D. The Interview Schedule

Semi-structured interviews must have a degree of structure in their implementation. This is achieved by constructing an interview schedule so that, at least in part, all participants in the interviews do receive some questions in common. It follows, of course, that this allows flexibility to the interviewer to make maximum use of the opportunities offered to enrich the data, but with Jick's (1979:602) warning in mind, that although there is an alteration in the method of collecting data, the focus of the study must never be changed. Having issued his warning, Jick (1979:609) then comments on the prize to be won: "Thus enters the artful researcher who uses the qualitative data to enrich and brighten the portrait." Brauer (1981:34) has expressed much the same thought in less extravagant language when describing the qualitative data derived from interview: "The sample is small and although drawn from the same population as the questionnaire sample the data is used to augment the questionnaire results not to explain them."

The compilation of the interview schedule was greatly influenced by the interview schedules prepared by Brauer (1981:158) and Jankovic (1983:344). The general format used was taken from Jankovic and the more structured type of questions used was taken from Brauer. This combination from two sources to frame the interview schedule was judged by the researcher to be more appropriate for this study than a direct reproduction from one source only.

E. Closing Comments

For some time there have been two main research methods, quantitative and qualitative and this tended to polarize researchers. In recent times, there is evidence of a much higher level of tolerance between the two research camps. One benefit from this growing tolerance is the use of quantitative and qualitative research methods in triangulation. Jick (1979:610), when discussing triangulation, said: "It heightens qualitative methods to their deserved prominence and, at the same time, demonstrates that quantitative methods can and should be used in complementary fashion."

It appears, then, that studies would be enhanced by interviewing some of the questionnaire respondents if this were the primary data collection method. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1982:136,137), the researcher who uses interviews for triangulation cannot lose because "good interviews produce rich data filled with words that reveal the respondent's perspectives" and "even the bad interview contributes something."

Data Analysis

Demographic data were examined to see if men and women in the sample varied significantly in relation to variables such as preferred mentor qualities, problems and from whom help was sought.

Information regarding mentor-protege interactions prior to and during the first teaching year was sought together with protege perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of having had such a relationship in the first year of teaching. Perceptual data were examined to find if the perceptions of beginning teachers were related to the sex or age group of the neophyte, or to the location of the school.

Definitions

Dodgson (1986:29) has concluded from reviewing the literature that "the definition of a mentor is elusive and varies according to the view of the author." If Dodgson was correct,

her view should be apparent in this definition which was given by Willis and Dodgson (1985:1): "A mentor was defined as a trusted and experienced counsellor who influences the career development of an associate (here called a 'protege') in a warm, caring and helping relationship." Kram (1985:30,32) defined mentors in terms of function. This was reminiscent of Clawson's method which will be discussed later. Kram vizualized a career function and a psychosocial function. The career function incorporated "sponsorship, exposure - and - visibility, coaching, protection and challenging assignments." The psychosocial function incorporated "role modeling, acceptance - and - confirmation, counseling and friendship." These mentor functions allowed Kram to avoid trying to define a mentor because as she said about her study,"...it became apparent that the word *mentor* had a variety of connotations, and that from a research point of view it would be best not to use it." Clawson(1980:144,145), too, has indicated the difficulty a researcher has in the field of mentoring: "The term mentor has been used to describe such a variety of individuals and the roles they play that one begins to wonder just what is a mentor." He has generalized and spoken about social roles and has claimed that precise description of social roles is very difficult due to their intangibility and dynamic nature. This general claim can easily be applied to the social roles of mentor and protege. In an attempt to clarify the meaning of mentor, Clawson used two concepts, comprehensiveness and mutuality. Comprehensiveness and mutuality are explained by this quotation from Clawson (1980:146):

> Thus the first mentor was an older, more experienced, and trusted individual who took an active interest in developing a younger person in every facet of his life and career. The first mentor-protege relationship had high levels of mutual respect, trust and affection - all of which contributed to the mutual commitment to the relationship.

Modern use of the term mentor has diluted both comprehensiveness and mutuality but, nevertheless, both must be present to some degree for Clawson (1980:148), for he has insisted that "the more a relationship is characterized by comprehensiveness and mutuality, the more it is a mentor-protege relationship." The lack of comprehensiveness in preceptorship as defined by Morrow (1984:3) is sufficient to distinguish a mentor from a preceptor. Morrow has pointed out that "the purpose of the [preceptor] relationship is rather specific."

To measure the minimum to satisfy comprehensiveness, Clawson (1980:147) has insisted that a mentor must play several of the following roles: teacher, coach, sponsor, perspective enlarger, confidant, friend, role model. Clawson did not define what he meant by several. Mutuality is measured by the levels of mutual respect, trust and affection. Further, a mentor-protege relationship cannot be unilateral.

In an attempt to meet Clawson's criteria, the following definition will be used in this study:

Mentors are persons who possess several of the following qualities, with at least one of the qualities coming from Part A and others from Part B.

Part A

- A person you feel you can trust and who trusts you;
- A person you feel you can tell your problems to, both professional and personal, without fear of rejection or threat to your professional advancement;
- A person you respect and who respects you;and
- A person you like and who likes you.

Part B

- A person who has qualities and skills that you do not yet possess but, in time, would like to;
- A person who has achieved a position you would like to have eventually, even if it is only to be a stepping stone to a more desired position;
- A person whose opinion you value;
- A person whose value system resembles your own;
- A person who encourages; and
- A person who is politically aware of the local situation, that is, understands the system.

Limitations

Limitations were imposed on the study for the following reasons:

- There were weaknesses in the sample. The researcher cannot guarantee that the names received from the 29 jurisdictions was a complete listing of all beginning teachers with whom the study was concerned;
- The researcher had no choice in the composition of the urban group. The near equality of the subgroup sizes was fortuitous;
- No effort was made to contact those who had resigned from teaching during, or at the end of, their first year of teaching if the resignation had been effective before the study began. The perceptions of this group of teachers who had resigned would probably have been most valuable in assessing the benefits or otherwise of having mentors available for beginning teachers;.
- Second year teaching experiences might have distorted recollections of the first year;
- Results could have been distorted due to the unavailability of the preferred mentor;
- The study did not investigate the problems encountered by beginning teachers in various special schools, for example, French immersion schools; and
- The results of the study, at best, could only be said to describe the actual participants. Extension to all beginning teachers within 80 kilometres of Edmonton could only be done with caution. Any further application would rest entirely on the interpretation of the results by the reader.

Chapter IV

INDUCTION TO TEACHING: TEACHER CATEGORIES

In this chapter, the answer to the first problem statement will be sought by examining the adjustment of beginning teachers and interns to their first teaching positions under six headings derived from the literature, as follows:

- Adjustment to the community;
- Adjustment to the school district;
- Adjustment to the school;
- Adjustment to the classroom;
- Adjustment to the field of education; and
- Adjustment to the new role.

The same format has been used in the analysis of each adjustment. Analysis of the full sample (N=102) has been followed by the corresponding analysis of the three types of teacher who compose the group, namely, second year teachers (N=34), first year teachers (N=35) and interns (N=33). Where there were differences among the three groups, second year teachers, first year teachers and interns, these differences have been identified in the text associated with the table accompanying each area of adjustment.

Similar analyses were carried out in which the full sample analysis was followed by group analyses with the following group compositions:

- Males (N=40) and females (N=62);
- Respondents 24 years of age and older (N=50) and respondents younger than 24 years of

age (N=51); and

Urban respondents (N=36), suburban respondents (N=34) and rural respondents (N=32).

These analyses involving sex, age group and location of the respondents followed the analyses of the three teacher types in each of the six facets of adjustment to form Chapter V.

In this way, it was hoped to discover any links, if they existed at all, between beginning teacher problems and the variables of sex, age group and school location. The six areas of adjustment used for identifying problems were derived from the literature as being likely areas of difficulty for beginning teachers and which are more fully described in the methodology chapter.

A number of problems related to each area of adjustment was posed and two responses were sought, namely, the degree of assistance desired and the degree of assistance provided in each adjustment area. Responses were recorded on Likert scales using the following key:

0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great

A. Adjustment to the Community: Teacher Categories

Findings. Six potential problems for beginning teachers and interns have been presented in Table IV.1 regarding their settling into the communities in which they were going to teach. The number of responses varied from 94 to 97 out of a possible total of 102. The means of the degree of assistance desired lay between 0.79 and 1.41 and in all cases exceeded the corresponding means for the degree of assistance provided, which lay between 0.71 and 1.18. The differences between the six pairs of means of assistance desired and provided lay between 0.07 and 0.43

Differences between means for assistance desired and assistance provided were statistically significant for four of the six items. Further, in all cases, the means for the degree of assistance desired exceeded the corresponding means describing the degree of assistance

Table IV.1 Adjustment to the Community

		N	Degree of assistance desired Mean[1]	S.D.	Degree of assistance provided Mean[1]	S.D.	Difference between Means	Significance
1.	Finding accommodation	94	0.79	1.24	0.71	1.22	.07	N.S.
2.	Becoming informed about services available in the community (health, education, transportation, religious denominations, shopping etc.)	96	1.13	1.20	0.93	1.20	.20	.05
3.	Becoming acquainted with the surrounding district	97	1.36	1.22	1.11	1.17	.25	.05
4.	Meeting residents of the community	95	1.41	1.20	1.18	1.19	.23	N.S.
5.	Making friends with people outside the school	95	1.07	1.31	0.74	1.09	.34	.01
6.	Meeting people my own age	95	1.15	1.29	0.72	1.02	.43	.01

[1] Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

provided.

The six means for the degree of assistance desired ranged from 0.79 to 1.41, a range of 0.62, and had an average of 1.15. The six means for the degree of assistance provided ranged from 0.71 to 1.18, a range of 0.47, and had an average of 0.90.

Only item 1, which dealt with finding accommodation, had a mean value less than 1 in the degree of assistance desired column. This item had also the lowest mean in the degree of assistance provided column. The highest means for both help wanted and received was for the same item, item 4, ***meeting residents of the community***.

The means for help wanted by second year teachers, who were reflecting on their initial year of teaching, ranged from 1.16 for item 1 to 1.59 for item 4 and for help received, the lowest mean was 0.79 for item 5 and the highest was 1.19 for item 4.

For first year teachers the lowest and highest means for help wanted were 0.72 for item 1 and 1.26 for item 4 and for help received, the corresponding figures were 0.56 for item 1 and 1.06 for item 4.

For intern teachers the extreme means for help wanted were 0.47 for item 1 and 1.53 for item 3. The extreme means for help received were 0.47 for item 1 and 1.38 for item 3.

The overall means for help wanted and received by second year teachers were 1.42 and 1.01, by first year teachers, 0.98 and 0.79 and by intern teachers, the respective means were 1.04 and 0.89. Statistically significant differences in the means between help wanted and help received were found for items 2, 5 and 6 in the second year teacher group, and for item 6 only in the other two groups, which were composed of first year teachers and interns. Item 2 concerned services available in the community and items 5 and 6 dealt with making friends and meeting people of the same age as the respondents.

Although finding accommodation, item 1, was not among those items with a statistically significant difference between the means for the total group, a statistically significant difference existed between the second year teachers and the interns, the second year teachers wanting more assistance in the matter in their first teaching year. The same disparity

was detected for item 5, where the second year teachers sought more help than the interns in making friends out of school. There were no other statistically significant mean differences between the means for help wanted nor for any of the mean differences for help received.

Discussion. For all six items the means for help wanted and help received were small, being always much less than 2 on the scale. This implied that the degree of help wanted was closer to 'little' than 'moderate.' Because the average of the means for help received was less than 1 then the degree of help provided lay between 'none' and 'little.' Differences between corresponding means were small too, being in the order of 0.25 which indicated that although little help was received by the beginning teachers and interns, little help was sought.

Statistically significant differences between assistance desired and obtained were found for the whole group for the following items:

- 2. Becoming informed about services available in the community (health, education, transportation, religious denominations, shopping etc.);
- 3. Becoming acquainted with the surrounding district;
- 5. Making friends with people outside the school; and
- 6. Meeting people my own age.

These four items were reflected in the three teacher groups as follows:

- Second year teachers: differences between desired and obtained assistance held for items 2, 5 and 6;
- First year teachers: the difference held for item 6 only; and
- Interns: the difference also held for item 6 only.

There was little evidence in the data to suggest that beginning teachers and interns, in adjusting to the community, encountered difficulties that would suggest remedial measures be taken to alleviate these problems. Item 6, ***meeting people my own age***, was the only item for which there was a statistically significant difference between the means for help wanted and help received for all three subgroups.

No matter where the answers might be found, the problems encountered by beginning teachers and interns in adjusting to their communities did not lie heavily on them.

B. Adjustment to the School System:Teacher Categories

Findings. As can be seen in Table IV.2, questions were asked about four aspects of adjusting to the school system. For each of the four questions, the means for the degree of assistance desired, ranging from 2.54 to 3.16, exceeded those of the degree of assistance provided and these ranged from 1.92 to 2.54. The differences between the means for help wanted and received lay between 0.47 for item 1 and 0.74 for item 3. The average of the four differences between the means for help sought and help received was 0.62.

Items 1, 2 and 3 all had means for help wanted in excess of 3. This meant that the respondents, as a total group perceived a 'great' to 'very great' need for assistance in adjusting to the school system, except for item 4, *assessing the value of central office personnel as sources of help*, where there was a lesser need for help which was indicated by item 4 having a mean of 2.54.

A comparable situation was found for help given. Items 1, 2 and 3 all had means greater than 2. This meant, that for these three items, the degree of help given lay between 'moderate' and 'great.' The mean for item 4 was 1.92 which indicated that the average help given in this item was close to 'moderate' but less than 'moderate.'

The four means for help desired were greater than the corresponding means for help received and in every case the difference was statistically significant.

The extreme means for the second year teachers for help wanted were 2.70 for item 4 and 3.21 for item 3 and for help received, the extreme means were 1.61 for item 4 and 2.55 for item 3.

The corresponding figures for first year teachers for help wanted were 2.71 for item 4 and 3.37 for item 2 and for help received, the extreme means were 2.11 for item 3 and 2.69 for

Table IV.2 Adjustment to the School System[1]

		Degree of assistance desired		Degree of assistance provided		Difference between Means	
		N	Mean[2] S.D.	Mean[2]	S.D.		Significance
1.	Becoming informed about the rules, regulations and policies of the school system	101	3.01 0.79	2.54,	0.95	.47	.01
2.	Becoming acquainted with sources of assistance in the school system (consultants, student services, teaching materials, etc.)	101	3.12 0.77	2.47	0.98	.64	.01
3.	Becoming familiar with the curriculum and the texts to be used	101	3.16 0.88	2.42	1.06	.74	.01
4.	Assessing the value of central office personnel as sources of help	100	2.54 1.10	1.92	1.23	.62	.01

[1]School System was used as an umbrella term for School District, School Division and County.
[2] Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

item 1.

For intern teachers, the lowest and highest means for help wanted were 2.19 for item 4 and 2.97 for item 3 and for help received,the corresponding figures were 1.97 for item 4 and 2.61 for items 2 and 3.

Second and first year teachers had statistically significant differences between the means for help wanted and received for all four items. Interns had a statistically significant difference between the means for help wanted and received for item 3 only. The higher mean was for help wanted.

The Scheffe procedure indicated that the degree to which first year teachers wanted help for item 2, which related to sources of help in the school system, was significantly greater statistically than that of the second year teachers and interns. A similar disparity existed between first year and intern teachers for item 4 which was concerned with help from central office personnel and again, the first year teachers had the highest need. There were no other significant differences between the means for help wanted and none at all for help received.

Discussion. For the whole sample the means for both the assistance desired and assistance provided was much higher for adjustment to the school system than for adjustment to the community. The differences in the means between assistance desired and assistance provided were also much higher.

The average of the means for the degree of help wanted by the group was very close to 3 which implied that the degree of help wanted was 'great.' The corresponding figure for degree of help received was 2.34 which could be interpreted as indicating that the average degree of help received was closer to 'moderate' than 'great.'

The data suggested that adjustment to the school system was a major concern for second and first year teachers but not for interns, except for their solitary concern regarding the help given to satisfy their deficiency in knowledge regarding curriculum and texts to be used. This was also the area of greatest want for the total group with a mean of 3.16 for the

degree of help wanted and it was the item with the greatest difference between the means for help wanted and help given. This meant that the area of greatest unsatisfied need was becoming familiar with the curriculum and texts to be used. Over the four items in this section, the interns had an average unmet need of 0.29.

Although all groups received less assistance than they wished in assessing the value of central office personnel as sources of help, the great disparity of 1.09 between the means for help wanted and help received in making the assessment in this item should be noted in the data received from second year teachers, and the greater disparity of 1.18 between the means for help wanted and provided in problems faced by first year teachers in dealing with curriculum and texts.

The greatest difference between the means for help wanted and received by the total group was 0.74 and it related to the curriculum and texts to be used. The desire for help was measured at 3.16 which indicated more than 'great desire.' This potentially difficult situation was eased by receiving a reasonably high response in the help provided category, 2.42, but this still left this item with the highest measure of unmet need.

Because of the imbalance in the number of statistically significant differences between intern teachers and all other teachers, it was concluded that second and first year teachers resembled each other regarding their introduction to the school system but that intern teachers were quite different.

C. Adjustment to the School: Teacher Categories

Findings. This zone of adjustment had ten items and they are displayed in Table IV.3. The results for the whole group showed that the extreme means for help wanted were 2.13 for item 10 and 3.18 for item 5. and for help received, 1.86 for item 10 and 2.75 for item 5.The overall means for help wanted and received were 2.64 and 2.36 respectively for the total group. There were six items for which the difference between the means for help wanted and received

Table IV.3 Adjustment to the School

			Degree of assistance desired		Degree of assistance provided		Difference between Means	
		N	Mean[1]	S.D.	Mean[1]	S.D.		Significance
1.	Becoming acquainted with the layout of the school	99	2.28	1.31	2.23	1.21	.05	N.S.
2.	Meeting the principal's expectations of beginning staff	98	2.81	1.00	2.35	1.15	.46	.01
3.	Accepting the philosophy of the school	98	2.26	1.20	2.10	1.19	.15	N.S.
4.	Learning school routines (reports submitted, records kept, etc.)	101	3.04	0.85	2.41	1.04	.63	.01
5.	Forming a link with an experienced teacher who would act as an information source and/or an advisor, at least in the early days	100	3.18	0.93	2.75	1.35	.43	.01
6.	Becoming acquainted with the rest of the staff	102	2.67	1.03	2.69	1.01	-.02	N.S.
7.	Making friends with members of staff	99	2.46	1.20	2.58	1.09	-.11	N.S.
8.	Becoming informed about the aims of my teaching subject(s)	101	2.82	1.02	2.33	1.02	.50	.01

continued

9.	Achieving the aims of the school (and its departments, if any) for my teaching subjects	101	2.76	0.94	2.30	0.98	.47	.01
10.	Seeking demographic information about the students who attend the school (racial and religious components, family incomes and occupations, disadvantaged children etc.)	102	2.13	1.04	1.86	1.17	.27	.05

[1] Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

was statistically significant. These were items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10. More help was given than asked for, but in small amounts, for items 6 and 7.

The second year teachers, for help wanted in theiir first teaching year, had means which ranged from 2.12 for item 10 to 3.27 for item 5 and for help received, means which ranged from 1.62 for item 10 to 2.82 for items 5 and 6.

The extreme means for help wanted by first year teachers were 2.03 for item 3 and 3.12 for item 4 and for help obtained, the corresponding results were 1.83 for item 10 and 2.60 for item 7.

The intern teachers had help wanted means which ranged from 1.97 for item 10 to 3.19 for item 5 and the corresponding means for help given were 2.15 for item 10 and 3.31 for item 5. The overall means for help wanted and obtained by: second year teachers were 2.68 and 2.31, by first year teachers 2.67 and 2.25, and the corresponding means for intern teachers were 2.57 and 2.52.

In small amounts, more help was received than sought for second year teachers for items 6 and 7, for first year teachers for items 1 and 3 and for intern teachers, items 1, 5, 6, 7 and 10.

Statistically significant differences between the means for help wanted and help received were detected for second year teachers for items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10, for first year teachers for items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10 also and for intern teachers for items 2 and 4 only.

The Scheffe procedure detected statistically significant differences between the means for help given to interns and first year teachers for items 5 and 9. The interns had the higher mean in both instances. There were no other significant differences detected in either the help sought or in the help given.

Discussion. The whole sample and the three subgroups agreed about the two areas of greatest need. There was one reversal concerning the order. The two items were 5 and 4 and the only change in order was shown by the first year teachers. Items 5 and 4 related to a link with

an experienced teacher and learning school routines respectively. The results were as follows, the mean for item 5 being given first:

Whole sample	3.18 and 3.04
Second year teachers	3.27 and 3.03
First year teachers	3.09 and 3.12
Intern teachers	3.19 and 2.97

Statistically significant differences were found in the following items:

Whole group	Items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10
Second year teachers	Items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10
First year teachers	Items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10
Intern teachers	Items 2, 4

More help was given than sought as follows:

Whole group	Items 6, 7
Second year teachers	Items 6, 7
First year teachers	Items 1, 3
Intern teachers	Items 1, 5, 6, 7, 10

Further, interns received noticeably more help than first year teachers in forming a link with an experienced teacher and in becoming informed about the aims of their teaching subjects, items 5 and 8. The means for help received for item 5 for intern teachers and first year teachers were 3.31 and 2.17 respectively, a difference of 1.14, and for item 8 the corresponding figures were 2.70 and 2.06, a difference of 0.64. The difference between the means for help received by interns and second year teachers for item 10, which dealt with demographic information, was in excess of 0.50.

Of the six adjustment areas, this one had the second highest average for the total group of the means for help wanted, 2.64. Within the area of adjustment to the school, the total group sought most help in forming a link with an experienced teacher, with a mean of 3.18 as did the second year teachers, who were reflecting on their first professional year, with a mean score of 3.27 and the interns with a mean score of 3.19. The first year teachers indicated their highest need as learning school routines, item 4, which had a mean of 3.12. The full group selected item 4 as their second highest need with a mean of 3.04. Second year teachers and

interns also chose item 4 as the second highest area of need with means of 3.03 and 2.97 respectively. Interns saw their highest unmet need in meeting the principal's expectations of beginning teaching staff. The first year teachers, as already indicated, chose forming a link with an experienced teacher as their second highest area of need with a mean of 3.09.

The total group reported a great need to form a link with a more experienced teacher and this need would be supported by the second year teachers and interns. There was such a small difference in the perceived needs of first year teachers for such a link and learning school routines that the case for suggesting that the highest need as described by the group for a link with an experienced teacher was not markedly weakened. With greater conviction it could be claimed that the two highest needs of beginning second year, first year and intern teachers in their adjustment to the school were forming a link with an experienced teacher and learning school routines. For the total group the difference in the means between help wanted and help received for learning school routines was 0.63 and the corresponding difference for forming a link with an experienced teacher was 0.43. This would suggest that the group received more satisfaction in their desire for help with the latter problem.

When the subgroups were examined, establishing a link with an experienced teacher was a great concern for interns but they received more help than they sought so that their problem disappeared. This can easily be explained that each intern had at least one experienced teacher looking after him or her.

In meeting the principal's expectations, second year teachers, recollecting their induction to teaching, had the highest means for help wanted and help received and they also had the highest difference between the means. First year teachers had the second highest means for help wanted and help received but the difference between these means was slightly lower than the corresponding difference for the interns who had the lowest means for help wanted and help received.

In meeting the principal's expectations, then, second year teachers had the greatest concern and despite receiving the greatest amount of help, they were the group with the greatest

unsatisfied need in this regard.

Achieving the aims of the school for the subjects they taught was made easier for the interns due to the greater help received in answer to their needs. This could be accepted without undue difficulty as second and first year teachers were accountable as fully recognized teachers whereas interns were always under supervision and difficulties could be more readily overcome through the ever-present supervising teacher.

Items 1, 3, 6, 7 and 10 were found by the group to be of less difficulty than they had anticipated because of the amount of help they received. Indeed, in items 6 and 7 they received more help than they thought they needed.

Item 8, *becoming informed about the aims of my teaching subject(s)*, had the third highest mean for help wanted for the total group. The mean for help received was such that it left the second largest deficit in the difference of the means for help wanted and received in the adjustment to the school. Interns received less help in this area than they had hoped for but they did not unduly suffer. Second year teachers had means of 2.79 and 2.24 for degrees of help wanted and received. This occasioned a difference in the means of 0.55. The corresponding figures for first year teachers were more alarming being 2.71 and 2.06 leaving a deficiency of 0.65. Item 9, achieving school aims, followed the same pattern as did item 8. This raised the question about whether schools and departments really knew what they were trying to do.

Although first year teachers perceived their needs to be as high as those of second year teachers in this problem area, they received relatively less help than did second year teachers in their induction year. First year teachers were left then with the greatest unmet need.

The data have allowed the conclusion that first and second year teachers are reasonably alike but both these groups were significantly different from intern teachers in their adjustment to the school.

D. Adjustment to the Classroom: Teacher Categories

Findings. This aspect of the six areas of adjustment had seventeen items which are displayed in Table IV.4. When the total group was considered, the lowest and highest means for help wanted were 1.32 for item 7 and 2.74 for item 13 and for help received, the corresponding means were 1.03 for item 7 and 2.70 for item 14. The overall average for help wanted was 2.38 and for help received, 1.95. The means for help wanted exceeded the corresponding means for help obtained for all items except item 14 where a small surplus of help was given. For all the other sixteen items, the means for help wanted were statistically significantly higher than the means for help obtained.

For second year teachers, for help wanted in their initial teaching year, the means ranged from 1.45 for item 7 to 2.79 for item 14 and for help received, 1.00 for item 7 to 2.35 for item 6.

For first year teachers, for help wanted, the lowest mean was 1.29 for item 7 and the highest mean was 2.88 for item 6 and for help received, the means ranged from 0.88 for item 7 to 2.80 for item 14.

For intern teachers, the extreme means for help wanted were 1.20 for item 7 and 2.65 for item 13 and for help received, the corresponding means were 1.23 for item 7 and 3.12 for item 11.

The overall means for help wanted and received by the three teacher groups were, for the second year teachers, 2.42 and 1.75, for the first year teachers, 2.47 and 1.80 and for the intern teachers, 2.23 and 2.31.

Statistically significant differences between the means for help wanted and received were found for fourteen items out of the seventeen in the area of adjustment by the second year teachers. The three non-significant items were 2, 3 and 6. Only item 14 was not significant in the difference between the means for help wanted and received for first year teachers. Intern teachers had differences between the means for help wanted and received which were

Table IV.4 Adjustment to the Classroom

			Degree of assistance desired		Degree of assistance provided		Difference between Means	
		N	Mean[1]	S.D.	Mean[1]	S.D.		Significance
1.	Becoming acquainted with the contents of the classroom	100	2.42	1.16	1.90	1.19	.52	.01
2.	Dealing with lack of equipment	99	2.18	1.27	1.81	1.16	.37	.01
3.	Implementing the school philosophy in the classroom	98	2.17	1.14	1.98	1.11	.19	.05
4.	Knowing how my own particular program fits in with the total school program	98	2.32	1.13	1.77	1.09	.55	.01
5.	Dealing with class organization problems within permitted school limits	99	2.52	1.00	2.10	1.00	.42	.01
6.	Dealing with class discipline problems within permitted school limits	101	2.70	1.03	2.39	1.08	.32	.01
7.	Teaching in what I felt was a substandard classroom	95	1.32	1.48	1.03	1.20	.28	.05
8.	Evaluating student progress	102	2.51	1.08	2.01	1.14	.50	.01

continued

9.	Preparing school reports (report cards, attendance, etc.)	102	2.53	1.06	2.25	1.01	.28	.05
10.	Becoming acquainted with the students I teach and their backgrounds	102	2.32	0.97	2.09	1.02	.24	.05
11.	Being given opportunities to see experienced teachers at work	102	2.48	1.21	1.90	1.47	.58	.01
12.	Having a procedure available which encourages me to discuss problems caused by my inexperience	101	2.55	1.07	1.81	1.30	.74	.01
13.	Being given a teaching load which reflects my training and lack of experience	99	2.74	1.27	2.16	1.32	.58	.01
14.	Being given opportunities to grow professionally through the provision of in-service programs	102	2.63	0.96	2.70	1.02	-.07	N.S.
15.	Having a variety of teaching methods to deal with the different needs of the students	101	2.63	1.02	2.06	1.05	.57	.01
16.	Organizing time to cope with matters such as lesson planning, corrections, report writing and other clerical tasks	102	2.52	1.30	1.77	1.28	.75	.01
17.	Lack of congruence between theory and practice	100	1.86	1.28	1.43	1.08	.43	.01

[1] Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

statistically significant for two items only, items 11 and 14.

The Scheffe procedure found nine items which produced thirteen differences in the means for help given which were statistically significant. These were for items 1, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17. For all nine items, interns had the higher mean. Eight of these significant differences concerned interns and second year teachers and were for items 1, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16. The remaining five significant differences concerned interns and first year teachers for items 8, 11, 12, 16 and 17. There were no statistically significant differences between the means for help desired.

Discussion. The problems cited in the adjustment to the classroom, with two exceptions, were assessed as greater than 'moderate' by the total group. Sixteen out of the seventeen elements were statistically significant for the whole group in the differences of their means between the degree of assistance desired and the degree of assistance provided. The average of the differences of the means was 0.43 and is second only to the corresponding figure from the adjustment to the school system 0.62.

The two major problems of the total group seemed to be concerned with teaching load and discipline. Although discipline appeared to be a problem for the total group in terms of help wanted and received, the source of the problem seemed to stem from the first year teachers who rated discipline as their biggest problem. Interns received more help than they asked for in terms of discipline and for the second year teachers, there was no evidence of undue difference between the help wanted and help given. Second year teachers reporting on their first year experiences, and interns rated discipline problems fourth. The picture was different for teaching load. Both second and first year teachers produced a statistically significant difference between the means for help wanted and help supplied and the difference was to their disadvantage whereas interns received more help than they sought. Teaching load was the first concern for interns, the second for first year teachers and the third for second year teachers.

Intern teachers again made little contribution to the problem of having a procedure available which would encourage beginning and intern teachers to discuss their problems. First year teachers would have seemed to carry most of this burden.

In the matter of preparing school reports, all difficulties it would seem, lay with second and first year teachers. In this category, intern teachers received more help than they asked for.

Problems associated with the organization of time, can fairly safely be attributed to second and first year teachers because, over all, intern teachers received exactly the help they asked for.

In dealing with lack of equipment, item 2, only first year teachers had a statistically significant difference between the means for assistance wanted and assistance received, the former exceeding the latter. With both second year teachers and interns, help asked for exceeded help received but not to any great extent. With one exception, the outcome of the results for item 3, which dealt with school philosophy, paralleled those of item 2 which have just been reported. In item 3, interns again received more help than they asked for. The results for item 8, evaluating student progress, followed the same pattern as the results for item 3.

Statistically significant differences between help sought and help obtained were detected in the whole group result and in the results for second and first year teachers in item 1 which dealt with the contents of the classroom. Interns received slightly less than the help they had hoped for. There was an overwhelming impression that if what second and first year teachers had reported is the reality of teaching, then interns had had an unrealistic introduction to teaching. In ten of the seventeen items in the adjustment to the classroom, interns received more help than they asked for. Six of the remaining items showed a difference between the degrees of assistance desired and provided of less than 0.20 on a scale from 0 to 4 and the final element showed a difference of 0.22. This seemed to indicate that supervising teachers had protected their interns to a very high degree. When the three subgroups were examined, it transpired that, of the fourteen items for second tear teachers which were statistically significant, the means for assistance wanted exceeded those for assistance received by 0.50 or

more for twelve of the seventeen items, for twelve of the fourteen statistically significant items for first year teachers and in no cases at all for interns. For interns there were two cases where the means for help received exceeded the means for help wanted by more than 0.50 and both these differences were statistically significant. This suggested that interns adjusted to the classroom very much more easily than the two groups of full time beginning teachers.

The item with the highest concern for the whole group was item 13 which had a mean score of 2.74. This dealt with teaching load.

Item 12, *having a procedure available which encouraged me to discuss problems caused by my inexperience,* item 12, had a mean value of 2.55 for help desired and 1.81 for help provided. The difference in the means was, of course, 0.74. It was of interest to see how the three subgroups respondeed to this item as it was representative of many of the items, for example, items 5, 8, 9, 12, 13, 15 and 17.

Table IV.5 clearly showed the much smaller unmet need of the intern teachers when compared with first and second year teachers who were recalling their experiences of the previous year.

There were some interesting contrasts between second and first year teachers. In the matter of discipline, the contrast was heightened because interns made a positive contribution to the results as they received more help than they asked for. Although second year teachers received less help than they sought, the lack was not unduly great. The significance of the results rested then on first year teachers. This isolation was probably due to the protection received by interns from their supervising teachers and to the greater experience of the second year teachers who could reflect on an experience of a complete first year while first year teachers responded after approximately four months experience. The data did not suggest in any way that interns were more competent than first year teachers.

Problems associated with teaching load cannot, in general, be attributed to interns who, as a group, received more help than they asked for in this aspect of adjustment to the classroom. Statistically significant differences were encountered with second and first year

Table IV.5 Results for Item 12 by Groups: Having a Procedure Available for Discussing Problems

Category	Mean of Assistance Desired	Mean of Assistance Provided	Difference in Means
Whole group	2.55	1.81	0.74
2nd year teachers	2.38	1.53	0.85
1st year teachers	2.77	1.57	1.20
Intern teachers	2.50	2.38	0.12

teachers between the means for assistance wanted and received.

Regulations did not permit interns to operate as teachers. They were to teach under the supervision of one or more teachers. It was not difficult to visualize that interns only taught part of what could be considered a normal teaching load.

Second and first year teachers are very junior and very inexperienced members of staff. Teaching is an occupation in which the newly qualified practitioner is expected to function like the more experienced members of staff. Thus, what to a beginning teacher might appear to be work overload might well be considered the norm by more experienced teachers. There is also an attitude among some teachers, that with increasing years of experience, more enjoyable tasks should be their lot and that new teachers, in their induction period, should be expected to shoulder a heavier and more unpleasant burden as their entry fee to teaching.

Difficulties associated with the availability of procedures which would encourage beginning teachers and interns to discuss problems due to their inexperience appeared to belong exclusively to first year teachers. Second year teachers might truly have had no difficulties with this aspect but, also, they might have looked back with faulty recollection. Interns, on the other hand, had an immediate, possible solution to any such problems had they had an effective association with their supervising teachers.

The writing of reports is a job which requires much care particularly if the report is being sent to the student's home. It is understandable that such reports, say report cards, are completed with care by the teacher. A supervising teacher who allows an intern to write such reports, will allow it under guidance as the supervising teacher will be held accountable for the contents of the report. In this study, then, it was not difficult to see that the impact of problems concerning report writing was felt least by the interns. The accountability factor had permitted the attributing of problems to both the second and first year teachers.

It seemed not unreasonable to assume that an experienced teacher and a beginning teacher would be expected to produce similar outcomes although not necessarily with similar efforts. The supposition was that an experienced teacher would manage time more effectively than a beginning teacher. Now, if the experienced teacher had an intern to help with the class, then time would become even easier to manage to the benefit of students, experienced teacher and intern. The situation of the inexperienced teacher had worsened by comparison. This could explain why time management problems rested with the second and first year teachers.

The inconsistencies revealed by the means in the adjustment have been highlighted by listing the first eleven ranks rated by the the total group in terms of frequency, and placing alongside, the positions these items were accorded by the three subgroups, second year teachers, first year teachers and interns. Ranks twelve to seventeen were in the main, occupied by the same categories although not quite in the same order. Table IV.6 had recorded the ranks of the total group and the three subgroups.

As shown in Table IV.6, it appeared that the second year teachers had the greatest concern in the area of time management, item 16. First year teachers fared better but, nevertheless, they too had a large unmet need. The high differences experienced by second and first year teachers between help wanted and received could be explained by their anxiety in their first year to perform well with their limited skills, because, as qualified and practising teachers, they would be held accountable for the progress of their students. Further, during the actual act of teaching, they had operated in professional isolation. Interns, although fully qualified,

Table IV.6 Rank Order of the Top Eleven Critical Events as Rated by the Whole Group and Three Subgroups

Item No	Critical Event	Whole Group	Second Year Teachers	First Year Teachers	Intern teachers
13	Being given a teaching load which reflects my training and lack of experience	1	3	2	1
6	Dealing with class discipline problems within permitted school limits	2	4	1	4
14	Being given opportunities to grow professionally through the provision of in-service programs	3.5[1]	1	6	7
15	Having a variety of teaching methods to deal with the different needs of the students	3.5[1]	6	4.5[1]	2
12	Having a procedure available which encourages me to discuss problems caused by my inexperience	5	11	3	5
5	Dealing with class organization problems within permitted school limits	6.5[1]	7.5[1]	7	8
9	Preparing school reports (report cards, attendance, etc.)	6.5[1]	4	8.5[1]	9
16	Organizing time to cope with matters such as lesson planning, corrections, report writing and other clerical tasks	8	2	10.5[1]	11
8	Evaluating student progress	9	7.5[1]	10.5[1]	6
11	Being given opportunities to see experienced teachers at work	10	12	8.5[1]	3
1	Becoming acquainted with the contents of the classroom	11	14	4.5[1]	10

[1]Indicates tied rank

were not judged as fully functioning professionals and where need was felt by them for an increased skill repertoire, they had advantages over classroom-bound teachers in observing more experienced teachers using a variety of teaching methods.

The deficiency in help supplied to meet the needs of the group in class organizational problems was repeated in each of the three subgroups. The greatest disparity was borne by the first year teachers 0.65, the second year teachers recorded a difference of 0.56 and the interns had a deficit of 0.03. Interns, on the face of it, should have had the least problem with organization because of the constant supervision they worked under and this was indeed the case. First year teachers, with the same preparation prior to teaching, had no such supervision and worked, in the main, in professional isolation.

All three groups expressed the desire for help in observing experienced teachers at work. Because second and first year teachers had responsibilities for the progress of the students they taught, it would have been much more difficult to secure their release for a meaningful time from their classes to observe other teachers. Interns were often associated in their work with more than one teacher and thus, without inconvenience to anyone, could carry out these observations. The results showed that interns observed more than they would have liked.

Help in getting to know their students and their backgrounds was one of the lighter aspects in adjusting to the classroom for second and first year teachers. Again, interns received more help in this area than they sought.

An item which caused little concern to the whole group was item 14 which dealt with in-service programs. First year and intern teachers received more help than was asked for.

When the ratings of the three subgroups were compared with the total group rating of eleven items in the adjustment, shown in Table IV.6, there was no sense of similarity. When the three subgroups were compared among themselves, the lack of order was obvious. It appeared, then, that in adjusting to their classrooms, second and first year teachers resembled each other in the large number of items in which the difference between the means for help wanted and received were statistically significant. Intern teachers had only two items with statistically

significant differences in their means.

E. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Teacher Categories

Findings. Table IV.7 has shown that for the total group, the means for help wanted ranged from 1.42 for item 4 to 2.41 for item 3 and for help received, from 1.49 for item 4 to 2.35 for item 2. The overall mean for help wanted was 2.08 and for help received, 2.00.

There was only one difference between the means for help wanted and help received which was statistically significant and that was for item 3. The higher mean was for help wanted.

More help was given than sought for items 2, 4 and 6.

The extreme means for help wanted by second year teachers were 1.52 for item 4 and 2.50 for item 3 and for help received, the lowest mean was 1.39 for item 4 and 2.41 for item 2.

For first year teachers, the lowest mean for help wanted was 1.41 for item 4 and 2.71 for item 3 and for help received, the means ranged from 1.68 for item 4 to 2.54 for item 2.

The extreme means for interns for help wanted were 1.33 for item 4 and 1.97 for item 3 and for help received, the lowest mean was 1.39 for item 4 and 2.15 for item 1.

The overall means for help wanted and received for the three teacher groups were, for the second year teachers, 2.12 and 1.96, for the first year teachers, 2.31 and 2.15 and for the intern teachers, 1.78 and 1.88.

There was only one difference in the means for help wanted and obtained which was statistically significant and that was for first year teachers for item 3. Help wanted had the higher mean.

The Scheffe procedure detected that first year teachers had a significantly greater need for assistance than did interns for items 2, 3 and 5. There were no other significant differences detected between the means for help wanted and none for help given.

Table IV.7 Adjustment to the Field of Education

		N	Degree of assistance desired Mean[1]	S.D.	Degree of assistance provided Mean[1]	S.D.	Difference between Means	Significance
1.	Having confidence in my role as teacher	102	2.24	1.18	2.10	1.10	.14	N.S.
2.	Feeling comfortable interacting with all school staff	102	2.24	1.28	2.35	1.21	-.11	N.S.
3.	Feeling that parents recognize me as a competent teacher	101	2.41	1.30	2.04	1.21	.37	.01
4.	Becoming an active member of the teachers' professional organization	100	1.42	1.03	1.49	1.05	-.07	N.S.
5.	Becoming knowledgeable about the services offered by the Alberta Teachers' Association	101	2.08	1.07	1.89	1.05	.19	N.S.
6.	Having access to professional reading	101	2.07	1.05	2.12	1.20	-.05	N.S.

[1] Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

More help was given than sought for second year teachers in their first teaching year for items 2 and 6, for first year teachers for item 4 and for intern teachers for items 1, 2, 4, 5 and 6. First year teachers obtained their desired help for item 6.

Discussion. Item 3 was the only item of the six in this adjustment in which a statistically significant difference in means for help desired and obtained was found. The only subgroup to reflect this was the first year teachers. In three of the items, the total group received more help than was sought and in two of those three, the second year teachers were over indulged. The first year teachers received excess help in the item missed by the second year teachers when compared with the total group. As already reported, interns received more help than they asked for in five of the six items. The average of the differences between the means for help wanted and received for the total sample was 0.08. The means for help wanted ranged from 1.42 to 2.41 and averaged 2.08. The means for help supplied ranged from 1.49 to 2.35 and averaged 2.00. Thus, although there was recognizable anticipation of difficulty on the part of the group, their needs were well met in adjusting to the field of education.

Despite this, the Scheffe procedure has revealed three items in which first year teachers had a significantly higher desire for help than did interns. This was for items 2, 3 and 5.

In the adjustment to the field of education, proportionately more help was given to the beginning teachers and interns than in any other adjustment. The evidence of the over supply of help to the group as a whole, and to interns as a subgroup in particular, restricted the items in which help was under supplied with statistical significance between help desired and obtained to one only, item 3, *being recognized by the parents as a competent teacher*.

In Alberta, teachers must be members of the Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA). The evidence suggested that compulsory membership of the ATA is not synonymous with passive membership because, with the exception of second year teachers, more help was given than was asked for in concerns related to active membership of the ATA.

There was evidence that there had been a generous response to the beginning teachers and interns in their need for access to professional reading. It could be surmised that this encouragement to keep abreast of current developments in education stemmed from the active participation of teachers in the ATA. The data encouraged the belief that teacher type might have been related to the adjustment of beginning teachers and interns to the field of education.

F. Adjustment to the New Role: Teacher Categories

Findings. The sixth adjustment area had eight items of which three were statistically significant when the difference between the means for help wanted and help received was considered for the whole group. As indicated in Table IV.8, these were items 4, 5 and 8. In turn, these dealt with frustration, inadequacy and apprehension related to the inadequacy of professional preparation. In item 3, *accepting my place in the hierarchical structure of the system*, more help was given to the complete group than was asked for, but this difference was not statistically significant. For all other items, more help was sought than was obtained.

Second year teachers, reporting on their first year experiences, had means for help wanted which ranged from 1.12 for item 3 to 2.50 for item 4, and for help received, their lowest mean was 1.26 for item 3 and their highest mean was 2.03 for item 4. For the eight items in the adjustment area, the second year teachers had an overall average of 1.90 for help wanted and 1.75 for help received. More help was given to second year teachers than was sought for items 3, 6 and 7 but these excess amounts were small.

First year teachers had means for help wanted which ranged from 1.25 to 2.71 for item 3, and for help received, their lowest mean was 1.26 for item 1 and their highest mean was 2.00 for item 4. Unlike the second year teachers, first year teachers had differences between means for help sought and help received which were statistically significant. These occurred for items 4, 5, 6 and 8 and in all four cases, the mean for help wanted was greater than the mean for help received. First year teachers received a small amount of excess help for item 3. For the eight

Table IV.8 Adjustment to the New Role

			Degree of assistance desired		Degree of assistance provided		Difference between Means	
		N	Mean[1]	S.D.	Mean[1]	S.D.		Significance
1.	Accepting the restraints placed on teachers by society	100	1.40	1.09	1.28	1.12	.12	N.S.
2.	Coping with the demands of superordinates, e.g. principal	101	1.93	1.20	1.70	1.18	.23	N.S.
3.	Accepting my place in the hierarchical structure of the system	98	1.27	1.14	1.37	1.16	-.10	N.S.
4.	Coping with feelings of frustation	102	2.43	1.10	2.01	1.02	.42	.01
5.	Coping with feelings of inadequacy	101	2.11	1.20	1.77	1.06	.34	.05
6.	Coping with feelings of failure	100	1.71	1.27	1.50	1.09	.21	N.S.
7.	Coping with feelings of rejection	100	1.38	1.25	1.32	1.18	.06	N.S.
8.	Coping with apprehension related to the adequacy of my professional preparation for teaching	101	2.18	1.29	1.71	1.15	.47	.01

[1] Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

items in this adjustment area, the first year teachers had an overall average of 1.93 for help wanted and 1.55 for help received.

Intern teachers had for their lowest mean for help wanted, 1.09 for item 7, and 2.06 for their highest, in this instance, for item 4. For help received, their lowest mean was 1.00 for item 7 and their highest was 2.00 for item 4. Like the second year teachers, intern teachers had no differences between the means for help wanted and help received which were statistically significant. For the eight items in this adjustment area, the overall mean for intern teachers for help wanted was 1.57 and for help received 1.45.

The Scheffe procedure detected two differences in the means which were statistically significant. One was for the excess help wanted by first year teachers compared to the want of interns for item 4 and the other was for the excess of help given to second year teachers for item 7 compared to the help given to interns. There were no other significant differences detected in either the means for help sought or given.

Discussion. For the total group, the items with the three largest means for help wanted were items 4, 8 and 5. These dealt, in turn, with feelings of frustration, apprehension and inadequacy. Despite their having the three largest means for help received, they had the three largest differences between help sought and help received. This, of course, accounted for the statistical significance occurring for these items.

When the data from the three discrete teacher groups were examined, it was noticed that excess or the desired assistance was given to second year teachers for items 3, 6 and 7 and to first year teachers for items 1 and 3 only and not at all for interns. The first year teachers had the largest difference between the overall means for help wanted and help received for the three teacher groups. Their difference was 0.38 which was noticeably higher than that for the second year teachers, 0.15, and for the intern teachers, 0.12. As items 4, 5, 6 and 8 all had strong psychological components, and as first year teachers were reflecting on their first three months of teaching, there might have been an inverse link between psychological concerns and

length of teaching service for those beginning teachers who were not supervised directly.

All three teacher groups chose the same four items in the same order for their four highest perceived degrees of need. In descending order of mean for help desired, these items were 4, 8, 5 and 2. The degree of help given for these items to second year and intern teachers related well to the degree of assistance sought by them but it fell significantly short of what was sought by the first year teachers for items 4, 5 and 8.

The three teacher groups were very much alike in their perceptions of degree of help wanted and also of degree of help received over the eight items of the adjustment to the new role. The statistically significant difference for help wanted was between the means for first year and intern teachers for item 4, the higher mean belonging to the first year teachers. Item 4 was ranked first by all teacher groups but the first year and and intern teachers viewed the gravity of the problem very differently. The other statistically significant difference was for item 7 between the second year teachers and intern teachers for help given. The recollections of the second year teachers suggested that they received the greater amount of help. This did not appear to be of great consequence as mean for help wanted by interns exceeded the mean for help given by only 0.09.

In all eight elements in the adjustment to the new role, intern teachers always received less help than they sought. Their greatest unmet needs were for items 1, 5 and 8 which dealt with accepting the restraints placed on teachers by society, feelings of inadequacy and apprehension about their professional preparation, but even for these items, the degree of concern was not high. First year teachers were the group who appeared to be least satisfied in adjusting to the new role. They were the only group who had statistically significant unmet needs. Interns' needs were never fully met but they did not unduly feel the loss. Second year teachers had the benefit of receiving more help than they wanted for three of the eight items.

The more sympathetic treatment that the second year teachers received in their initial teaching year may have been due to the longer time that they were in contact with potential helpers. Second year teachers answered in terms of a full initial year during which time

friendships could have developed and been strengthened.

First year teachers answered in terms of less than a semester when possibly certain difficulties had just arisen and the neophytes might have been uncertain of the reception with which their disclosure of problems might have been received.

Interns were certainly less protected in adjusting to the new role. Perhaps confusion reigned about the new role of intern teacher. Was it the role of teacher or was it the role of intern? Was the intern's role understood by principals, teachers, students and students' parents? How did the interns perceive their role? These possible ambiguities might have explained the residual difficulties interns had after help had been given. If differences of note existed, then it would be concluded that second year and intern teachers were alike and both subgroups differed from first year teachers.

G. Chapter Summary

Six areas of adjustment which new teachers have to contend with were presented. Each adjustment area consisted of a number of items and respondents were asked to indicate the degree of help desired and the degree of help provided for each item on a Likert scale which went from 0 to 4. On this scale, 0 represented **No help** and 4 represented **Very great help**.

Analyses for the whole group were carried out in which the differences in the means between help wanted and received were examined, t scores were calculated and, where appropriate, levels of significance at .01 and .05 were noted. Similar procedures were carried out for the subgroups, second year teachers, first year teachers and intern teachers. Table IV.9 has been constructed to show the numbers of statistically significant differences detected in the means in the six areas of adjustment. There were fifty-one items in the six areas of adjustment and the differences between the means for help wanted and received were examined to see if any of these differences were statistically significant. The search was carried out for second year teachers recalling their first teaching year, first year teachers and intern teachers.

Table IV.9 Teacher Group Differences in Six Adjustment Areas

Adjustment Area	Group	Mean[1] HD[2]	Mean[1] HO[2]	Mean Diff. HD-HO	Significant Items (t)	Item Nos. HO>HD	Scheffe or (t) HD	(t) HO
Community Items:N=6	a[4]. Second year N=34	1.42	1.01	0.41	2, 5, 6	Nil	(a-c)1,5	Nil
	b[3]. First year N=35	0.98	0.79	0.19	6	Nil		
	c[4]. Intern N=33	1.04	0.89	0.15	6	1, 2		
School system Items:N=4	a. Second year	3.01	2.23	0.78	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil	(b-c)2, 4	Nil
	b. First year	3.12	2.36	0.76	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil	(b-a)2	
	c. Intern	2.72	2.43	0.29	3	Nil		
School Items:N=10	a. Second year	2.68	2.31	0.37	2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10	6, 7	Nil	(c-b)5, 8
	b. First year	2.67	2.25	0.42	2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10	1, 3		
	c. Intern	2.57	2.52	0.05	2, 4	1, 5, 6, 7, 10		
Classroom Items:N=17	a. Second year	2.42	1.75	0.67	1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17	Nil	Nil	(c-a)1, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16
	b. First year	2.47	1.80	0.67	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17	14		(c-b)8, 11, 12, 16, 17
	c. Intern	2.23	2.31	-0.08	11, 14	3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17		
Field of education Items:N=6	a. Second year	2.12	1.96	0.16	Nil	2, 6	(b-c)2, 3, 5	Nil
	b. First year	2.31	2.15	0.16	3	4, 6		
	c. Intern	1.78	1.88	-0.10	Nil	1, 2, 4, 5, 6		
New role Items:N=8	a. Second year	1.90	1.75	0.15	Nil	3, 6, 7	(b-c)4	(a-c)7
	b. First year	1.93	1.55	0.38	4, 5, 6, 8	1, 3		
	c. Intern	1.57	1.45	0.12	Nil	Nil		

[1]Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great
[2]HD=Help desired [2]HO=Help obtained [4]a=Second year [3]b=First year [4] c=Intern

Adjustment to the community. This adjustment area had six items and, in all cases, the mean for help desired was greater than the mean for help obtained for the group as a whole and for each subgroup when examined separately. The means for help wanted and received were quite low as were the differences between them. Nevertheless, despite the absolute differences being small, statistically significant differences were found for items 2, 3, 5 and 6 which dealt with community services, the local district, making friends out of school and meeting people of the same age respectively. The group as a whole had nearly all its needs met in finding accommodation. This was especially true of second year teachers and interns.

For the six items in the adjustment to the community, the number of differences which were statistically significant between the means for help wanted and received, for the total sample, was four, from second year teachers, three, from first year teachers, one, and from intern teachers, one. The degree of help wanted by second year teachers was significantly higher than the degree of help wanted by intern teachers for items 1 and 5. There were no differences among the three teacher groups for help provided. As the degree of help wanted by the whole group was low, then statistically significant differences in the means had little importance. It was concluded that second year, first year and intern teachers had no discernible difficulties in their adjustment to the community.

Adjustment to the school system. This adjustment area contained four elements and, in every case, the mean for help wanted exceeded the mean for help given for the total group. Further, for the total group the differences in the means for help wanted and received were all statistically significant.

All the means in the adjustment to the school system were larger than the corresponding means in the adjustment to the community as were the differences in the means. Thus it seemed fair to conclude that adjustment to the school system was a bigger problem when compared with the adjustment to the community. Not only in comparative terms would this appear to be true but also in absolute terms due to the size of the means which were

generally in excess of 3 for help wanted which indicated, at least, 'great need.'

First year teachers wanted significantly more help than did second year teachers and interns for item 2 which dealt with sources of assistance in the school system. The brunt of the difficulties encountered in adjusting to the school system was borne by the second and first year teachers. Of concern to all subgroups was becoming familiar with curriculum and texts to be used, item 3.

Using data relating to their induction year, it appeared the second year teachers found the required help lacking in trying to assess the central office personnel as sources of help, item 4. The disparity between the means for help wanted and received was 1.09 which was notably high. First year teachers were even worse off with item 3 which dealt with curriculum and texts. The difference between the means for help wanted and supplied was 1.18. All four items in the adjustment to the school system had differences between the means for help wanted and help received which were statistically significant for the whole sample, second year and first year teachers. Intern teachers had only one significant mean difference. First year teachers had a statistically significant higher need for help for item 2 than did second year teachers and interns, and, for item 4, first year teachers had a significantly higher need for help than did interns. This led to the conclusion that second and first year teachers were very similar but that both these groups were quite unlike the intern group in coping with the problems of adjusting to the school system.

Adjustment to the school. In this section there were ten items. In two of them, items 6 and 7, there was more help received than sought by the total group. These items involved interaction with staff and making friends with them. Total group results showed that there were six items in which there was a statistically significant difference between the means for help wanted and received. These were:

Item 2: Principal's expectations;
Item 4: School routines;
Item 5: Forming a professional link;

Item 8: Aims of teaching subject(s);
Item 9: Aims of school; and
Item 10: Demographic information.

This pattern of statistical significance found in the group was exactly reproduced by both second year and first year teacher groups. For interns it was reproduced for items 2 and 4. only.

Analysis of the total group indicated that the two areas of highest concern in adjusting to the school were items 5 and 4 which dealt with forming a link with an experienced teacher and learning school routines respectively. When the subgroups were analyzed, it was found that all three teacher groups had also selected items 5 and 4 as their biggest concerns.

The whole sample, second year teachers and first year teachers all had statistically significant differences between the means for help wanted and help received for the same six items out of the ten in the adjustment to the school. Intern teachers had statistically significant differences for two items. This indicated again the similarity between second and first year teachers reflecting on their initial year. Interns did not resemble, to any degree, their colleagues in the other two teacher groups. This was reinforced by the finding that intern teachers were given statistically significant more help for items 5 and 8 than first year teachers.

Adjustment to the classroom. There were seventeen items in this adjustment area and when the whole group was considered, only one difference in the means for help wanted and received was not statistically significant. Interns received more help than they needed in the matter of discipline and teaching load. First year teachers rated discipline and teaching load as their first two major problems. Second year teachers, recalling their introductory year to teaching, rated discipline fourth and teaching load third, having rated professional growth through in-sevice training first and time organization second. First year teachers had, as their greatest residual need, *having a procedure available which encourages me to discuss problems caused by my inexperience*, which was item 12.

Both second year and first year teachers had a large unmet need for assistance in acquiring a repertoire of teaching skills. For most of them, this would be overcome by trial and error methods as they taught in isolation. Interns, however, were much more mobile and were in a better position to see different methods being used in different situations.

In ten of the items, interns received more help than they asked for, first year teachers achieved this in one item and second year teachers always received less help than they asked for. This has prompted the thought that if the experiences of the second and first year teachers are the reality of induction to teaching, then interns have been extremely well protected from reality. One must wonder if this protection was to the advantage or disadvantage of the interns when they became full time, accountable teachers.

Although the degree of help sought by the total group in the adjustment to the classroom was less than that in the adjustment to the school system, on average by 0.58, the areas of difficulty were more numerous and serious enough to merit considerable attention. The means of help sought ranged from 1.32 to 2.74 and had an average of 2.38. The average deficit between help sought and help obtained was 0.43. Thus, it was seen that a large amount of wanted help was not forthcoming. Second year teachers had as their four highest residual help wanted problems, items 16, 11, 13, 15. For first year teachers, the four highest residual help wanted items were 12, 11, 16, 17. Interns had no such items of note. For two items, 1 and 5, interns had only a small unmet need, and for item 16, they received the help they sought. These items dealt with the contents of the classroom, classroom organization and time organization. A possible explanation for these responses could be found in the settings of the problems.They were classroom problems in the main and the ready availability of the supervising teacher would be a tremendous help in their solution.

Interns had an extremely gentle introduction to the classroom if the closeness of help given to help wanted was used as the measure. By this measure, second and first year teachers had a much rougher induction to the realities of the classroom. There was no discernible pattern in the help wanted means between the two groups. The conclusion was that the

perception of the gravity of classroom problems faced by beginning teachers and interns was influenced by the teacher group to which the respondents belonged.

A further examination was made across the three teacher groups with the same fifty-one items. The finding are displayed in Table IV.9. The biggest number of statistically significant differences was thirteen for the adjustment to the classroom and they were for differences between he higher means for help given to interns for nine different items against that given to one or both of the other two teacher groups. Interns had significantly more help given to them than did second year teachers for items 1, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16 and against first year teachers for items 8, 11, 12, 16 and 17.

The data tended to confirm the previous findings regarding the similarity that existed between the second and first year teachers and the dissimilarities of the intern teachers who reported receiving extra help.

Adjustment to the field of education. This section was composed of six items. Only item 3, *feeling that parents recognize me as a competent teacher*, showed a statistically significant difference between the means for help sought and help received for both the total group and first year teachers. The interns had a surfeit of attention in this area and for all participants this was the easiest of the six adjustments if the measure is made in terms of the satisfying of expressed needs. For example, first year teachers had extremely small unmet needs for items 2 and 6. These items dealt with staff interaction and professional reading.

In adjusting to the field of education first year teachers had a significantly greater need for help than did interns for items 2, 3 and 5. This evidence was not deemed to be convincing enough to conclude that there was no relation among the three teacher groups in this adjustment area.

Adjustment to the new role. The final adjustment, to the new role, had eight items. The only differences between the means for help wanted and received which were statistically significant were found in the returns from the first year teachers. These were for items 4, 5, 6 and 8 and in all four cases the means for help wanted exceeded those for help received. The Scheffe procedure showed that first year teachers had a significantly higher need for help for item 4 than did intern teachers and that second year teachers received significantly more help than did interns for item 7. For this adjustment area only, second and intern teachers had the similarity and the first year teachers, the dissimilarity in terms of help given in response to help sought. The first year teachers had a much larger unmet need.

General Conclusion

The general conclusion in terms of the six adjustment areas was that the adjustment to the school system and the classroom were the most difficult and that intern teachers had had a well protected period of induction to teaching compared with the induction experiences of their second and first year teacher colleagues.

Thus, from the literature, potential areas of difficulties faced by beginning secondary teachers were identified by examining them in terms of teacher type.

Chapter V

INDUCTION TO TEACHING: SEX, AGE GROUP AND LOCATION DIFFERENCES

In this chapter, the answer to the second problem statement will be sought by examining the six areas of adjustment which were used in the first instance to examine the induction of beginning teachers and interns to teaching in terms of teacher type and now, in terms of the sex, age group and location of the participants.

The means used were derived from the questionnaires received from the participants in the study and related to the following scale:

0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great

Sex of Participants

The full group was composed of 40 males and 62 females. This meant, that if there were no differences attributable to the sex of the participants, then approximately 40 percent of frequencies would be generated by the males in the study and the remaining 60 percent by the females.

A. Adjustment to the Community: Sex Differences

Findings. The means for help wanted by males ranged from 0.97 for item 1 to 1.53 for item 3 and for females, from 0.60 for item 1 to 1.25 for item 4. For help given, the means for

males ranged from 0.85 for item 5 to 1.43 for item 4 and for females, from 0.57 for item 1 to 1.00 for item 3 and 4. The overall means for help wanted and received by males were 1.27 and 1.06 respectively and the corresponding figures for females were 0.98 and 0.78.

There were statistically significant differences for the males between help desired and help obtained for items 2, 3, 5 and 6 and the corresponding finding for females was for items 4, 5 and 6. None of the six mean differences between males and females was statistically significant either for help wanted or for help provided.

Discussion. For males, there were four items out of the six in this adjustment area for which the differences in the means for help desired and obtained were statistically significant, and for females, three items out of the six had statistically significant differences. Items 5 and 6 were on the male and female lists. No significant differences were found between males and females in this study on the mean scores for the six items for help wanted and six items for help received.

B. Adjustment to the School System: Sex Differences

Findings. The means for help wanted by males ranged from 2.68 for item 4 to 3.35 for item 3 and for help received, from 2.15 for item 4 to 2.75 for items 1 and 2. The means for help wanted by females ranged from 2.44 for item 4 to 3.13 for item 2 and for help received from 1.77 for item 4 to 2.41 for item 1. The overall means for males for help sought and obtained were 3.03 and 2.59 and for females, 2.89 and 2.17. The help given to males was statistically significantly higher than the help given to females for items 2 and 3. There were no other significant differences between the help given to males and females nor any at all for help wanted by males and females. There were , however, statistically significant differences in the

means for help desired and help obtained, for males for items 3 and 4, and for females, for items 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Discussion. Overall, males had an unmet need of 0.44 and females, an unmet need of 0.72. Females wanted more help than males for item 2 only. For the other three items, males sought more help than females and, for all four items, males received more help than females.

Males and females expressed approximately the same level of help desired for items 1 and 2. Although neither group received the level of help desired, the differences in the means for both items 1 and 2 were statistically significant for the females. For items 3 and 4, both males and females expressed a degree of assistance wanted that exceeded the degree of assistance given by statistically significant amounts.

The adjustment to the school system was difficult for both males and females. This was shown by the level of assistance wanted being slightly below 'great' on the scale.

The general level of help provided was noticeably below what was sought. This shortfall was not evenly spread out over the two subgroups. For both males and females, the degree of help received was less than the help sought. The shortfalls were 0.44 for males and 0.72 for females. It could be accepted that some differences existed between males and females in their adjustment to the school system.

C. Adjustment to the School: Sex Differences

Findings. There were ten items in this adjustment area. The mean for the males for help wanted was 2.64 and for the females, 2.62 and for help received, the corresponding means were 2.40 and 2.33. The means for help wanted by males ranged from 1.95 for item 10 to 3.21 for item 5 and for help received, from 1.88 for item 10 to 2.90 for item 5. The corresponding means for females for help wanted were 2.15 for item 3 to 3.16 for item 5 and for help received, from 1.85 for item 10 to 2.66 for item 6.

There were no differences between the means for help wanted or received by males or females which were statistically significant. There were, however, statistically significant differences between the means for help desired and help obtained. These were, for males, items 2, 4, 8 and 9 and for females, items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10.

More help was given than sought to males for items 1 and 7 and to females for items 6 and 7. For item 6, males received exactly as much help as they had sought.

Discussion. To assist the reader, a brief summary of the contents of each item has been appended.

Item 1: School layout;
Item 2: Principal's expectations;
Item 3: Accepting school philosophy;

Item 4: Learning school routines;
Item 5: Forming a link with an experienced teacher;
Item 6: Becoming acquainted with the rest of the staff;
Item 7: Making friends with members of staff;

Item 8: Aims of teaching subjects;
Item 9: Achieving school aims; and
Item 10: Demographic information.

The highest mean, 3.21 for item 5 was recorded by the males for the degree of help wanted. Item 5 was also selected by the females as the item of greatest want. In all, males and females chose the same ranking for five out of the ten items.

Male ranking of items by means for help wanted:

5(3.21) 4(3.08) 9(2.90) 8(2.83) 2(2.77) 6(2.73) 7(2.49) 3(2.36) 1(2.13) 10(1.95)

Female ranking of items by means for help wanted:

5(3.16) 4(3.03) 2(2.83) 8(2.79) 9(2.67) 6(2.63) 7(2.39) 1(2.34) 10(2.24) 3(2.15)

Although there are obvious differences in the listings, both male and female groups chose the same five items for the top part of their lists and, of course, it followed that their choice for the bottom half also contained the same five items.

That there were six items out of the ten in the section in which the degree of help sought by both males and females differed by less than 0.1 indicated that male and female beginning teachers and interns did perceive some problems in the same way.

Approximately the same degree of help was received by both males and females for seven of the items, but there was nothing to suggest that the degree of help given was influenced by the degree of assistance desired. This has been illustrated in the listing which follows.

Help wanted by males in descending rank order of means for items:

5 4 9 8 2 6 7 3 1 10

Help given to males in descending rank order of means for items:

5 6 7 9 2 4 8 1 3 10

Help wanted by females in descending rank order of means for items:

5 4 2 8 9 6 7 1 10 3

Help given to females in descending rank order of means for items:

6 5 7 4 8 2 1 9 3 10

The two items for which the means of the degree of help wanted and received were close, and these were for males and females, were items 1 and 6. More help was received than sought for males for item 1 and, for females for items 6 and 7. These concerned the school layout, becoming acquainted with and making friends with the rest of the staff. Only the males

received the degree of help they sought for items 7 and 10 and only females received the degree of help they sought for item 3.

There were six items where the help given was significantly less than desired. These were items 2, 4, 8 and 9 for the males and items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10 for the females. Item 8 missed being included in the female list by a very small amount. Items 2 and 5 might have had an influence on each other. A beginning teacher who had formed a link with an experienced teacher would seem to have had an advantage in becoming politically aware than would a beginning teacher operating without such guidance. Females in the study did not have their reported need for assistance in forming a link with an experienced teacher met which could have affected the degree of help they received in meeting the principal's expectations. Males and females had expressed approximately the same degree of need in forming a link with an experienced teacher but males received a higher response to this need. Why this happened is not clear but possibly there are differences between the sexes in making initial approaches to new colleagues.

The difference between the means for help wanted and help obtained for item 8 was 0.50 for males and 0.46 for females. This could have been an indication that those approached for help regarding the aims of the subjects to be taught did not themselves have a clear knowledge of the aims of those subjects and were limited in the assistance they could offer.

There was a general resemblance between the perceptions of males and females of the degree of assistance required and of the degree of assistance received in adjusting to the school. Significant differences between the means for help given and received were encountered, four times for the males and six times for the females. It was concluded that males and females did not exhibit discernible differences in the adjustment of beginning teachers and interns to the school.

D. Adjustment to the Classroom: Sex Differences

Findings. This section had the greatest number of items. For convenience the 17 items comprising the section will be listed and briefly described and for the rest of the section, reference will be made to item numbers only.

Item 1: Classroom contents;
Item 2: Lack of equipment;
Item 3: Implementing school philosophy;
Item 4: Place of particular program in general program;

Item 5: Class organization;
Item 6: Discipline;
Item 7: Substandard classroom;
Item 8: Evaluating students;

Item 9: Preparing reports;
Item 10: Getting to know students and their backgrounds;
Item 11: Seeing experienced teachers teaching;
Item 12: Discussing professional problems;

Item 13: Teaching load;
Item 14: In-service programs;
Item 15: Repertoire of teaching skills;
Item 16: Organizing time; and
Item 17: Lack of congruence between theory and practice.

The mean for help wanted was 2.35 for males and 2.40 for females in the adjustment to the classroom. The corresponding means for help received were 1.97 and 1.93. The means for help wanted by males ranged from 1.46 for item 7 to 2.63 for item 6 and for females, from 1.25 for item 7 to 2.92 for item 13. The means for help given to males ranged from 1.06 for item 7 to 2.70 for item 14 and for females, from 1.02 for item 7 to 2.69 for item 14.

For sixteen of the items, the help sought by males and females was greater than the help received. The one exception was item 14, for which males received more help than they sought.

There was only one item, number 11, with a mean difference between males and females which was statistically significant with the females having the higher mean score. There

were, however, nineteen instances of the difference between the means for help desired an help obtained. Seven of these were for males for items 2, 4, 5, 12, 15, 16 and 17 and the remaining twelve for females for items 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16 and 17.

Discussion. The highest mean for the degree of assistance desired was 2.92 which rated as closer to 'great' than 'moderate.' The lowest mean for the degree of assistance desired was 1.25 which rated as closer to 'little' than 'moderate.' The weighted average of all the means for help wanted was 2.38 and the weighted average of all the means for help received was 1.95. For the total sample then, the average difference between help wanted and help received was 0.43. This represented a discernible loss from what was desired. When the total sample was broken into its two categories, males and females, it was found that males suffered a mean loss of help of 0.38, per item, and females had a mean loss of 0.47, per item.

Of the seventeen items in the section, females wanted more help than males in eleven of them but they received more help than males in only four of these eleven items. This meant that females perceived a greater need than males but they received less help than was given to males, but the amounts involved were small.

When the rankings of help wanted and received by males and then by females were compared, again there was no indication of correlation between the degree of help sought and the degree of help given.

There were nineteen instances in which there was a significant difference between the means for help wanted and help received. One of these was exclusively concerned with males, item 2, six were exclusively concerned with females, items 1, 6, 7, 8, 11 and 13, and six, items 4, 5, 12, 15, 16 and 17 were concerned with both males and females. Why was there such a great difference between nineteen pairs of means for help wanted and received and why were there one exclusively male and six exclusively female? Reasons for the great difference between the means would need to be advanced with great caution, but at least, it was with more confidence that the shared items, 4, 5, 12, 15, 16 and 17 could be declared problems common to

both male and female beginning teachers and interns. The exclusively male item, numbers 2, and the exclusively female items, numbers 1, 6, 7, 8, 11 and 13, might have been related to differences between males and females. Further, in choosing their top six items for help wanted, ten different items were chosen by the males and females. Of the total 17 items, males and females agreed on the positions of six but the other eleven were scattered up and down the lists with no evidence of agreement, but agreement would have been difficult as the thirty-four means for help were contained in a range from 1.25 to 2.91. If the four lowest means were ignored, the range of means for help wanted would have been from 2.02 to 2.91 for the top thirty means. It would have been unreasonable to expect agreement in order of choice for so many means with a range of 0.89 but beacause of the great disparity in the number of statistically significant differences between the means for assistance desired and obtained between males and females, it was concluded that the males and females differed in their adjustment to the classroom.

E. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Sex Differences

Findings. There were six items in the adjustment to the field of education. The average of the means for help wanted by males was 1.91 and by females, 2.18. The average of the means for help received by males was 1.97 and females, 2.02.

The lowest and highest means for help wanted were 1.33 for item 4 and 2.18 for item 3 for males; for females, the corresponding results were 2.21 for items 5 and 6 and 2.56 for item 3. For males, the lowest mean for help received was 1.55 for item 4 and the highest, 2.28 for item 2. The corresponding means for females were 1.45 for item 4 and 2.40 for item 2.

There were no differences in the means for help sought or help received between males and females which were statistically significant. but for item 3, there was a statistically significant difference between the means for assistance desired and obtained for females.

Males received more help than they sought for items 1, 2, 4 and 6 but females received more help than they sought for item 2 only.

Discussion. The overall total group averages of 2.07 and 2.00 for help wanted and received respectively suggested that in this area, in general, participants had almost all their needs met. The differences in the means for help wanted and help received were closer than in previous sections but in four of the six items, the males received more help than they asked for while the females had this extra help for item 2 only. The biggest difference in the means for help wanted and received was 0.49 for females for item 3 and this difference was statistically significant.

Both males and females chose item 3 as their main area for assistance sought and both subgroups had a tie for second place with the same items, namely items 1 and 2. Again there was no pattern detected in the degree of help provided when compared with the degree of help sought.

Males and females showed more consistency in ranking the items for which they sought help and for every item, females sought more help than males and for four items, females received more help than males. Overall, males received more help than they sought and females received less than they sought but, for both groups, these amounts were small. It could not be concluded that the sex of the participants was a noticeable factor in their adjustment to the field of education.

F. Adjustment to the New Role: Sex Differences

Findings. The adjustment to the new role had eight items. The means for help wanted by males ranged from 1.15 for item 3 to 2.10 for item 4 and had an average of 1.60. For females the corresponding range was from 1.35 for item 3 to 2.65 for item 4 and the average was 1.93.

The means for help received by males ranged from 1.31 for item 3 to 2.03 for item 4 and had an average of 1.61. For females, the range of the means for help received went from 1.15 for item 1 to 2.00 for item 4 and had an average of 1.57.

For items 4 and 5, the means for help wanted by females exceeded the means for help wanted by males by 0.55 and 0.72 respectively. Both these differences were statistically significant. There were no other mean differences, either for help wanted or received, between males and females which were statistically significant. Further, for males, there were no items for which the difference between the means for assistance desired and obtained was statistically significant but there were such statistically significant differences for females for items 4, 5, 6 and 8.

In adjusting to the new role, the average for help wanted and received by males were equal but, for females, the average of help wanted exceeded the average of help received by 0.36.

Discussion. When the whole group was considered, the mean for help wanted exceeded the mean for help given by 0.21. This suggested that, on the whole, most of the group's requirements were being met. This conclusion, however, did not present a true picture in terms of the sex of the participants. The means for males for help wanted and received were 1.60 and 1.61. The means for females for help wanted and received were 1.93 and 1.57 respectively which meant that the average difference between the means for help wanted and received by females was 0.36. This was evidence of imbalance between the sexes, and when this imbalance was considered with the two mean differences for help wanted and the four significant differences between help wanted and obtained, which were statistically significant, the conclusion that females had a more difficult time adjusting to the new role than males might possibly have been considered.

There were 102 pairs of means examined in order to discover if there were any differences in 51 pairs of means for help wanted and another 51 pairs of means for help

received, which were statistically significant. A further 51 pairs of means for help desired and obtained were examined for males and also for females. This detected 47 significant differences, seventeen for males and thirty for females.

Over the six areas of adjustment there was not enough evidence to say that males and females differed in their adjustment experiences as evidenced in Table V.1 With a narrower focus, it might have been said that males were assisted more in the adjustment to the school system and that females required more help in adjusting to the new role.

The forty-seven significant differences between assistance desired and obtained confirmed the finding that females had more need of help in adjusting to the new role but they also suggest that females had more difficulty than males in adjusting to the classroom.

Table V.1 Statistically Significant Mean Differences Encountered by Sex Groups in Six Areas of Adjustment

Area of Adjustment	Sex Groups	
	HW[1]	HG[2]
Community	0	0
School system	0	2
School	0	0
Classroom	1	0
Field of education	0	0
New role	2	0

[1]HW = Help wanted [2]HG = Help given

Age of Participants

The total group was composed of 102 persons, 52 of whom were 23 years or younger and 50 of whom were 24 years or older. These will be referred to as the younger and the older group respectively. The closeness of the sizes of the two groups will allow direct comparisons to be made with a high degree of confidence.

G. Adjustment to the Community: Age Group Differences

Findings. The highest and lowest means for help wanted for the younger group were 1.27 for items 3 and 4 and 0.82 for item 1 and for the older group, 1.41 for item 4 and 0.67 for item 1 respectively. For males, the highest means for help wanted was 1.53 and the lowest was 0.97 and for females, 1.25 and 0.60 respectively. The corresponding means for help received were 1.09 for item 4 and 0.69 for item 6 for the younger group and 1.27 for item 4 and 0.52 for item 1 for the older group. There were no differences between help wanted and help received which were statistically significant. These were for items 3, 5 and 6 for the younger group and for item 6 for the older group.

The means for help wanted and received by the younger group were 1.15 and 0.92 respectively and the corresponding results for the older group were 1.04 and 0.87.

Discussion. The degree of help sought overall by both groups was just slightly beyond 'little' on the scale. The help received by both groups differed by only a small amount. The two groups ranked their perceptions of the problems listed in very much the same way. The only exception was the reversal of the third and fourth choices.

There was no evidence that membership of an age group was related to a detectable difference in the problems faced by beginning teachers and interns in adjusting to their new communities.

H. Adjustment to the School System: Age Group Differences

Findings. This section had four items and the means for help wanted ranged from 2.42 to 3.18. The means for help received ranged from 1.92 to 2.55. The overall average of the means for help wanted was 2.96 and for help received, 2.33.

The average of the means for help wanted by the younger group was 3.01 and by the older, 2.89.

The average of the means for help received by the younger group was 2.34 and by the older 2.33.

There were no differences for help wanted or received between the younger and older group which were statistically significant but both the younger and the older groups had differences between the means which were statistically significant for help desired and obtained for all four items in this adjustment area.

The average unmet need for the younger group was 0.67, and for the older group, 0.56.

Discussion. The means in this section were the highest encountered. The degree of help sought overall was just below 'great' on the scale. The younger group's average of the means for help wanted was 3.01 and the older group's average was 2.89.

The degree of help received was well below what was sought for both the younger and the older groups. In all eight differences between the means for help wanted and received, the shortfall in help received was statistically significant.

Adjusting to the school system was perceived by both groups as being an area where much help would be needed and both groups fell far short of having their needs satisfied. There were no indications in the data reported that the age group to which the beginning teachers and interns belonged had any effect on dealing with problems associated with the adjustment to the school system.

I. Adjustment to the School: Age Group Differences

Findings. This section consisted of ten items. Item 9: Preparing reports;

The overall means for help sought, by the younger and older groups were both 2.63. The means for help received by the younger and older groups were 2.44 and 2.28 respectively.

In seven of the items, the younger group sought more help than the older group and for nine of them, received more. The item for which more help was given to the older group was item 10. This dealt with demographic information and was rated lowest by both groups for help wanted. More assistance was obtained than desired by the younger group for items 1, 3, 6 and 7 and by the older group for item 7 only.

Statistically significant differences were found between the means for help wanted and received by the younger group for items 2, 4, 8 and 9. Similar differences were detected between the means for help wanted and received by the older group for items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10.

A difference of 0.55 was found between the means for help given to the younger and older groups for item 5, *forming a link with an experienced teacher*. The younger group had the higher mean and the difference was statistically significant.

Discussion. The difference between the degree of help sought and received by the total sample was 0.28. If there was no difference between the groups, both groups would be expected to show approximately the same difference between their means for help sought and obtained. This did occur. The difference between the means for help sought and help obtained was, for the younger group 0.19 and for the older group, 0.35.

There was a high correlation between the order of the items when listed in descending size of means for help wanted by both the younger and the older groups. Again it appeared that the sense of need expressed by the groups was not reflected in the help received. To illustrate, both groups listed item 6 as sixth priority. In response, the younger group received help as second priority and the older group as top priority. As a further illustration of the disparity between help desired and help received, both groups listed item 7 as seventh priority for help wanted, and help received was reported as priorities 3 and 2.The difference of 0.55 in the means for item 5 which was mentioned in the findings was unusual for another reason other than magnitude. The help given to the younger group exceeded 3 on the scale which meant that the degree of help given was beyond 'great' on the scale and this did not occur for any other mean

for help given. The difference between the means for help received by the younger and the older groups was statistically significant. This was the only difference between means in this section which was statistically significant.

Differences between the means for help wanted and help received were statistically significant for the younger group for items 2, 4, 8 and 9 and for the older group for items 2, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 10. This could not be attributed entirely to the unpredictable levels of help offered as in each of the five cases the help wanted by the older group exceeded the help sought by the younger group.

There was insufficient evidence to encourage the conclusion that the age group to which the beginning teachers and interns belonged was related to their adjustment to the school.

J. Adjustment to the Classroom: Age Group Differences

Findings. This section had the greatest number of items. For convenience the 17 items comprising the section will be listed and briefly described and for the rest of the section, reference will be made to item numbers only.

Item 1: Classroom contents;
Item 2: Lack of equipment;
Item 3: Implementing school philosophy;
Item 4: Place of particular program in general program;

Item 5: Class organization;
Item 6: Discipline;
Item 7: Substandard classroom;
Item 8: Evaluating students;

Item 9: Preparing reports;
Item 10: Getting to know students and their backgrounds;
Item 11: Seeing experienced teachers teaching;
Item 12: Discussing professional problems;

Item 13: Teaching load;
Item 14: In-service programs;
Item 15: Repertoire of teaching skills;
Item 16: Organizing time; and
Item 17: Lack of congruence between theory and practice.

Table V.2 has listed the order in which the younger and older groups selected the items and the order in which help was supplied in response to the expressed needs.

Differences of 0.10 or less in the means for help wanted between the younger and the older groups were found for items 2, 3, 5, 8, 10 and 15, and for help received, such differences were found in items 2, 4, 6, 8, 12 and 17.

There were eleven items in this adjustment area for which differences between the means for help wanted and received by the younger group were statistically significant. These were for items 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15 and 16 and for the older group for items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16 and 17.

There was only one item with a pair of means in which the difference was less than 0.10 between help wanted and received. This was for item 14 and it applied to both the younger and the older groups.

The difference between the means for help wanted by the younger and older groups for item 11 was statistically significant. The older group had the higher mean.

Discussion. Table V.2 showed the many differences in the degree of help perceived to be desired by the younger and older groups. The younger group's first choice was the older group's seventh choice. The older group's first choice was the younger group's eleventh choice. There was more pattern discernible in the help received lists in the first six ranks but, again, the help received lists had apparently not been influenced by the help desired lists. The only uniformity was across the four lists for positions 16 and 17. Agreement in the last one or two places has been fairly common throughout the previous analyses.

Because there was only one difference between the means for help wanted which was statistically significant and because both groups had many statistically significant differences between help desired and help obtained in common, it was concluded that the age group to which the beginning teachers and interns belonged was not related to the problems associated with the classroom.

Table V.2 Items in Descending Order of Mean Size for Help Sought and Help Received by the Younger and Older Groups in Adjusting to the Classroom

Item Rank	Help Sought Younger Group	Help Sought Older Group	Help Received Younger Group	Help Received Older Group
1	13	11	14	14
2	6	12	6	6
3	14	15	9	9
4	9	1	13	10
5	15	16	5	13
6	5	8	15	1
7	8	13	3	11
8	16	14	8	8
9	12	6	10	5
10	10	5	16	15
11	11	9	2	12
12	1	4	4	3
13	3	10	11	2
14	4	2	12	4
15	2	3	1	16
16	17	17	17	17
17	7	7	7	7

K. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Age Group Differences

Findings. There were six items in this section. The highest and lowest means for the younger group for help wanted were 2.46 for item 3 and 1.42 for item 4 for help received, 2.50 for item 2 and 1.44 for item 4. The corresponding data for the older group were 2.35 for item 3 and 1.42 for item 4 for help wanted and 2.20 for item 2 and 1.54 for item 4 for help received.

The averages for help wanted by the younger and older groups were 2.13 and 2.02. The averages for help received by the younger and older groups were 2.08 and 1.91 respectively.

For item 6, the means for help given to the younger and older groups were 2.37 and 1.86 respectively. The difference between these two means was statistically significant and this was the only statistically significant difference in means detected between the two groups. There was one mean difference between assistance sought and obtained which was statistically significant. This was for item 3 for the older group. There were no such significant differences for the younger group.

Differences of 0.10 or less were found in the means for help wanted by both groups for items 2 and 4 and for help received by both groups for items 4 and 5. Similar small differences were found between the means for help wanted and received by the younger group for items 1 and 4 and by the older group for items 2 and 5.

Both groups received more help than they sought for item 4 and by the younger group for items 2 and 6.

Discussion. In adjusting to the field of education, the younger group indicated a small higher need for assistance compared with the older group, but the extra help received by the younger group resulted in a very balanced situation. Overall,for both groups the average of the means for help wanted exceeded the average of the means for help received by a very small amount.

The data for the adjustment to the field of education have led to the conclusion that the age group was not a variable of consequence in this adjustment.

L. Adjustment to the New Role: Age Group Differences

Findings. In this section of eight items, the highest and lowest means for help wanted were 2.44 and 1.23. The highest and lowest means for help received were 2.21 and 0.98. The means for the whole sample for help wanted and received were 1.80 and 1.58, a difference of 0.22.

The means for help wanted by the younger and older groups were 1.83 and 1.77 and for help received, the means were 1.83 and 1.33 respectively.

There were eleven differences in means which were statistically significant. One was for item 2 for help wanted in which the younger group had a higher mean than the older group. In another five cases the difference was in the means for help received and in all five, the younger group had the higher mean. These were for items 1, 2, 4, 6 and 7. The final five statistically significant mean differences were for differences between help desired and help obtained by the older group. The items concerned were 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8.

There was a difference of 0.10 or less between the means for help wanted for the younger and older groups for items 3 and 4, also between the means for help wanted and received by the younger group for items 1 and 5 and, finally, for the older group for item 3.

The ordered listings by means of help wanted by the younger and older groups agreed for first and eighth places only. The ordered listings for help received bore little resemblance to the ordered listings for help desired.

The younger group received more help than it sought for items 1, 3, 6 and 7. For all eight items, the older group received less help than was sought.

Discussion. The difference between the means for help wanted and received by the total group was 0.22. Because there was no difference between these means for the younger group, the difference between the means for help wanted and help received had to exceed 0.22, and, indeed, it was 0.44. This has been highlighted by the older group's desire for help exceeding the help received by at least 0.50 for four of the eight items.

Although the two groups had little disparity in their perceptions of the degree of help desired for the eight items in this section, there were eleven mean differences which were statistically significant.It was concluded that for the beginning teachers and interns in the study, the age group was a variable of influence in their adjustment to the new role. Table V.3 has been constructed to show the number of statistically significant differences detected in the means in the six areas of adjustment and their relationship to the age groups.

Apart from the six statistically significant mean differences in the adjustment to the new role, there was little evidence to suggest that the age of the participants was a variable of note in coping with the areas of adjustment. The major difference lay in the noticeably extra help given to the younger group in dealing with the adjustment to the new role.

Table V.3. Statistically Significant Mean Differences Encountered by Age Groups in Six Areas of Adjustment

Area of Adjustment	Age Groups	
	HW[1]	HG[2]
Community	0	0
School system	1	0
School	0	1
Classroom	1	0
Field of education	0	1
New role	1	5

[1]HW = Help wanted [2]HG = Help given

Location of Participants

The 102 participants were classified in terms of their school location. The outcome was 36 urban, 34 suburban and 32 rural respondents.

M. Adjustment to the Community: Location Differences

Findings. All means mentioned refer to the following scale:

0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great

This section had six items and the highest and lowest means for help wanted were 1.72 and 0.47. The highest and lowest means for help received were 1.52 and 0.38.

The extreme means for the three subgroups were as follows:

Urban group:
Degree of help desired, (0.94, 0.47); degree of help obtained, (0.85, 0.38)

Suburban group:
Degree of help desired, (1.56, 0.48); degree of help obtained, (1.52, 0.45)

Rural group:
Degree of help desired, (1.72, 1.31); degree of help obtained, (1.33, 0.87)

There were five instances where there were statistically significant differences between the means for assistance desired and obtained. These were for item 6 for urban respondents, and items 2, 3, 4 and 6 for rural respondents. There were no significant differences between help sought and obtained by the suburban group. Statistically significant differences were revealed by Scheffe testing. The significance is at the .10 level. Rural respondents had a higher statistically significant need for help in finding accommodation than did the urban and suburban groups. The rural group also received significantly more help than the other two groups in finding accommodation. Again, the rural group had a higher statistically significant need for help in finding out about services available in the community compared with the urban group. Both the suburban and rural groups had markedly higher needs for assistance in becoming acquainted with the surrounding district compared with the urban group and significantly more help was received by the suburban group than by the urban group in

remedying the geographical difficulty. Rural respondents had significantly greater need for assistance in meeting residents than did the urban residents. Thus, the Scheffe procedure identified nine statistically significant differences between means, six for help wanted and three for help received. Thus, the Scheffe procedure identified nine statistically significant differences between means, six for help wanted and three for help received.

Urban teachers and interns never received as much help as they sought although they sought little help. Suburban teachers and interns received more help than they sought for items 2 and 4. Rural teachers and interns received more help than they sought for item 1 only. Item 1 referred to accommodation, item 2 to community services and item 4 to meeting residents.

Urban respondents received nearly as much help as they wanted for items 1, 2 and 4; suburban respondents received almost all the help they wanted for items 1, 2, 3 and 4; and rural respondents had a near match for item 1 only. Item 3 referred to the surrounding district.

Suburban and rural participants had the same degree of assistance desired for item 3. Apart from this equality, rural teachers wanted more assistance in every item than respondents from the other two locations. For items 3 and 4, which in turn referred to becoming acquainted with the surrounding district and meeting residents of the community, the most help was given to suburban teachers. In all other cases, rural respondents received more help. Urban and suburban teachers and interns had approximately the same need of help for items 1 and 5, and they received about the same degree of help for the same two items.

When overall averages were calculated for the six items, urban respondents had averages of 0.77 and 0.59 for help wanted and help received respectively.

For suburban respondents, the corresponding averages were 1.05 and 0.98.

For rural respondents, the corresponding averages were 1.50 and 1.15.

Discussion. The total group split well enough over the three locations. This allowed direct comparisons to be made with a reasonable degree of confidence. The data clearly showed that urban teachers and interns had few concerns in the adjustment to the community,

suburban teachers and interns had greater concern and finally, rural teachers and interns were the most concerned of all.

Urban participants received little assistance but this was of little consequence as they asked for little help. Suburban respondents had nearly all their needs met, and, indeed, had more help offered than they wanted for two items. Rural respondents had a need for assistance that measured half-way between 'little' and 'moderate' and the response they received was a modicum above 'little' in degree.

From these data, it appeared that urban teachers and interns were more self-reliant in their first year of teaching than their suburban and rural peers. Suburban beginning teachers and interns had the lowest score for unmet need. Rural respondents had by far the greatest concern, and after the reception of help, were left with the greatest deficit in matters pertaining to assistance. If beginning teachers and interns tended to look for positions in areas similar to what they grew up in, then perhaps country teachers and interns have less confidence in themselves than suburban and urban teachers and interns but, so great were the needs of rural respondents that they were left with the biggest measure of unsatisfied need. But, as the overall need of all groups was small, being measured at 1.15 and as the help supplied was measured at 0.90, there was no convincing evidence to relate differences in location to difficulties in adjusting to the community.

N. Adjustment to the School System: Location Differences

Findings. The adjustment to the school system had four items. Although there was no pattern about the order in which the three groups perceived the degree of difficulty of each of the four items, the high degree of concern was evident in all locations.

For help wanted the general average for the urban group was 2.91, for the suburban group 2.97 and for the rural group, 2.95. Thus, in all the groups, the general perception of need

for help was very close to 'great.' The general averages for help received were, urban 2.21, suburban 2.46 and rural 2.35. The Scheffe procedure did not detect any statistically significant differences in the means for help wanted or help received concerning any of the four items between the three teacher locations. However, the difference between the means for help desired and help obtained was statistically significant for all four items in this adjustment area for urban, suburban and rural groups.

Discussion. There were only very small differences between the means for help wanted across each item as were the means for help received. There was no evidence in the data examined to suggest that adjusting to the first school system as a beginning teacher or as an intern was dependent on the location of the school system.

Q. Adjustment to the School: Location Differences

Findings. There were ten items in this adjustment area. The highest and lowest means for help wanted were 3.27 and 2.03 and for help received, the highest and lowest were 2.91 and 1.63.

The extreme means for the three subgroups were as follows:

Urban group:
Degree of help desired, (3.17, 2.06); degree of help obtained, (2.91, 2.03)

Suburban group:
Degree of help desired, (3.27, 2.03); degree of help obtained, (2.67, 1.91)

Rural group:
Degree of help desired, (3.09, 2.16); degree of help obtained, (2.75, 1.63)

The Scheffe procedure did not detect any differences in the means for help wanted or received which were statistically significant among the three location groups but fourteen significant differences were detected between the means for help desired and help obtained.

These were for items 2, 4, 7, 8 and 9 for the urban group, items 2, 4 and 5 for the suburban group and items 2, 3, 4, 8, 9 and 10 for the rural group. More help was given than sought for item 1 to the suburban and rural groups, for item 3 to the urban group, for item 6 to the urban group and for item 7 to the urban and rural groups. Item 1 referred to the school layout, item 3 to the school philosophy, item 6 to acquaintance with staff and item 7 to making friends with staff.

Each of the three groups chose the same items and in the same order for the first two areas for which most help would be needed. These items were 5 and 4 and they dealt with forming a link with an experienced teacher and learning school routines. Rural respondents placed items 3 and 10 as joint second last and item 1 at the bottom of their help wanted list. Item 3 dealt with accepting the school philosophy, item 10, referred to demographic information and item 1 dealt with the school layout. Suburban teachers placed item 10 at the bottom. Urban teachers placed item 3 at the bottom with items 7 and 10 occupying second bottom place jointly.

Help wanted and help given were closely matched for item 1 for the suburban and rural groups, for item 3, for the urban and suburban groups, for items 6 and 7 for the suburban and rural groups.

Discussion. The analysis of the complete adjustment to the school has shown that the three groups were very much alike. In general, the help provided was just a little below the help sought. In this matter the rural group came out worst but, in absolute terms, the deficiency was minor. The most noticeable aspect of the data was the choosing of items 5 and 4 by all three groups as the major areas where help was needed. It would seem that schools are schools no matter their location and that beginning teachers and interns identify many of the same difficulties in schools in different locations.

P. Adjustment to the Classroom: Location Differences

Findings. There were seventeen items in this section. The scale used to measure means was as follows:

0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great

For the convenience of referencing, the seventeen items are presented again.

Item 1: Classroom contents;
Item 2: Lack of equipment;
Item 3: Implementing school philosophy;
Item 4: Place of particular program in general program;

Item 5: Class organization;
Item 6: Discipline;
Item 7: Substandard classroom;
Item 8: Evaluating students;

Item 9: Preparing reports;
Item 10: Getting to know students and their backgrounds;
Item 11: Seeing experienced teachers teaching;
Item 12: Discussing professional problems;

Item 13: Teaching load;
Item 14: In-service programs;
Item 15: Repertoire of teaching skills;
Item 16: Organizing time; and
Item 17: Lack of congruence between theory and practice.

The extreme values for help wanted and received by the beginning teachers in terms of location were as follows:

Urban group:
Degree of help desired, (3.03, 1.32); degree of help obtained, (2.69, 1.03)

Suburban group:
Degree of help desired, (2.79, 1.38); degree of help obtained, (2.85, 1.13)

Rural group:
Degree of help desired, (2.75, 1.30); degree of help obtained, (2.53, 0.93)

More help was given than asked for to the urban and suburban groups for item 14. In all other cases, there was a deficiency in the help given in response to the help wanted. The overall wants

of the three groups were much alike as were the amounts of help they received.

There was great variety in the groups about what they perceived as areas of greatest need. The five items and their means for each group which were seen as being the greatest source of concern were as shown:

Urban group:	13(3.03)	12(2.75)	6(2.69)	11(2.69)	14(2.67)
Suburban group:	6(2.79)	13(2.66)	8(2.65)	15(2.65)	12(2.64)
Rural group:	14(2.75)	15(2.75)	2(2.66)	6(2.63)	8(2.59)

As has been mentioned, there were two cases where the help given was greater than the help sought. In only two instances was the help given short of what was wanted by 0.10 or less. These occurred for item 2 for the urban group and item 3 for the suburban group.

Help wanted exceeded help given by statistically significant amounts as follows:

Urban group:	Items 1, 4, 5, 8, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17
Suburban group:	Items 4, 11, 12, 15, 16
Rural group:	Items 1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17

The rural group had item 2 as its third highest item for assistance needed. The same item was listed sixteenth by the urban group and fifteenth by the suburban group. Item 2 dealt with lack of equipment. The Scheffe procedure detected a difference in the means for help wanted between the higher mean of rural respondents and the lower mean of urban respondents for item 2.

Discussion. Although in general all the groups felt the need for some degree of assistance over the seventeen items concerning their adjustment to the classroom, other similarities were difficult to find. Rural teachers had the lowest overall mean for help received but the urban overall mean was only 0.15 larger. All three groups listed item 7 at the bottom of their needs and item 17 second or third last. The expressed needs by all three groups were remarkably close for item 16. The means were 2.50, 2.53 and 2.53. There was a marked disparity in the perceptions of beginning teachers and interns from the three different locations about the items for which they would be in need of assistance. The five highest means of

assistance desired from the three groups were looked at. It was surprising that only item 6 appeared on all three lists, items 12 and 13 appeared on the urban and suburban lists, item 14 appeared on the urban and rural lists and item 15 appeared on the suburban and rural lists. In all, eight different items were listed out of a possible fifteen and this was an indication that location had an influence on how problems were viewed. The appearance of item 2 on the rural list only, and the relatively low position given to it by urban and suburban teachers has suggested that resources were lacking in the country secondary schools involved in the study compared with all the others in the study. This may have been due to the size of the school. Urban and suburban secondary schools tend to be larger than rural secondary schools and buying in bigger bulk is often more economical than buying small amounts. Urban and suburban secondary schools have greater and easier access to shops and other secondary schools. Buying and borrowing are simpler than for the rural secondary schools.

There were nine items for which the difference between the help desired and obtained by the urban group was statistically significant. The suburban schools had five such items. The rural schools had eleven such items.

Between the urban and suburban groups, four of these items were held in common:

items 4, 12, 15 and 16.

Between the suburban and rural groups, five items were held in common:

items 4, 11, 12, 15 and 16.

Between urban and rural groups, there were nine items held in common:

items 1, 4, 5, 8, 12, 13, 15, 16 and 17.

Items 4, 12, 15 and 16 were common to all three groups and for these items the help given was less than the help sought by at least 0.50 on the measuring scale for means.

It would appear then that all beginning teachers and interns in the study needed more help in understanding how the subjects they taught fitted into the complete school program, in having a procedure available which encouraged them to discuss problems caused by their inexperience, in having a variety of teaching methods to deal with the different needs of

students and in organizing their time to cope with the demands made on teachers and interns.

Urban and rural groups had a further expressed need for extra help in becoming acquainted with the contents of their classroom, dealing with class organization, student evaluation and coping with their teaching load. Suburban and rural groups needed additional help in seeing experienced teachers at work.

Teaching load was listed first by urban beginning teachers and interns and second by those in the suburbs. Rural beginning teachers and interns rated teaching load eighth.

The extensive variety of problems occurring, sometimes singly and sometimes jointly, in single areas and combinations of areas, led to the conclusion that location is possibly a variable to be considered when examining help wanted and help received by beginning teachers and interns in their classroom difficulties.

Q. Adjustment to the Field of Education: Location Differences

Findings. The ranked means of the six items for help wanted in this area of adjustment are in parentheses alongside their item numbers:

Urban group:	1(2.58)	3(2.51)	2(2.28)	6(2.03)	5(1.89)	4(1.35):	Mean = 2.11
Suburban group:	2(2.44)	3(2.32)	5(2.15)	6(1.97)	1(1.94)	4(1.38):	Mean = 2.03
Rural group:	3(2.38)	5(2.22)	6(2.22)	1(2.16)	2(1.97)	4(1.53):	Mean = 2.08

The means for help received were 2.03, 1.99 and 1.98 respectively. The urban group benefited from excess help for items 2, 4, 5 and 6, the suburban group for items 1, 2, 4 and 6 and the rural group for items 2 and 4.

Item 1 dealt with the teacher's role confidence, item 2 with interaction with staff and item 3 was concerned with parents recognizing the beginning teacher or intern as a competent teacher. Items 4 and 5 dealt with the teachers' professional organization and item 6 was concerned with professional reading.

For all three groups, the degree of help wanted was slightly above 'moderate' and the degree of help given hovered over the border between 'little' and 'moderate.'

The order of the degree of difficulty was quite different for the three groups and the items chosen showed variation over the first three places.

The help wanted by the urban group in having confidence in the teaching role was statistically significantly higher than the help wanted by the suburban group. This was revealed by using the Scheffe procedure and this was the only statistically significant difference detected for help wanted or received among the three locations. There was a statistically significant difference between the means for help desired and obtained by the urban group for item 3. There were no others in the suburban or rural groups.

Discussion. Although the rural group received more help than they asked for in this section for items 2 and 4, urban and suburban groups were similarly treated for these two items but they had additional items where they received surplus help. By comparison, then, rural teachers and interns fared less well than their city and near-city colleagues but not to a great degree.

Despite a number of similarities, the differences encountered among the three groups regarding more help being received than sought, together with the two detected statistically significant mean differences, it was concluded that differences existed in adjusting to the field of education which might have been related to the location of the schools.

R. Adjustment to the New Role: Location Differences

Findings. The highest and lowest means for help wanted by the urban group were 2.44 and 1.31, by the suburban group, 2.44 and 1.29, and by the rural group, 2.44 and 1.06 and the overall means for help wanted were 1.86, 1.89 and 1.63 respectively.

The highest and lowest means for help received by the urban group were 1.97 and 1.34, by the suburban group, 2.09 and 1.29, and by the rural group, 2.00 and 1.19 and the overall means for help received were 1.60, 1.63 and 1.52 respectively.

The Scheffe procedure detected a statistically significant difference between the means for help wanted by the suburban group and the rural group for item 8. The suburban group had the higher mean. There were no other differences which were statistically significant for help wanted and none at all for help given. There were four differences between the means for help desired and help obtained. These were for items 4 and 8 for the urban group and items 5 and 8 for the suburban group. There were none detected for the rural group.

An examination of the three highest means for help wanted showed that the urban and suburban groups chose the same three items but they were ranked differently. The rural group chose two of the three already spoken about and one other. In descending order of mean size, the choices were:

Urban group:	4(2.44)	5(2.40)	8(2.31)
Suburban group:	8(2.44)	4(2.41)	5(2.12)
Rural group:	4(2.44)	2(1.94)	5(1.78)

The highest mean for help wanted was the same for the three locations but were applied over two items. The suburban group had the highest needs and received the greatest help; the urban group had the next highest needs and received the next highest help; and the rural group had the lowest needs and received the least help. The rural group had a smaller unmet need than both the urban and suburban groups.

For item 3, which dealt with teachers and interns accepting their place in the hierarchical structure of the system, the suburban and rural groups received more than the requested help. Similarly, for item 7, coping with rejection, urban and rural groups received an excess of help.

The suburban group and the rural group received close to the help they sought for item 1, *accepting the restraints placed on teachers by society.* The urban group were treated similarly

for item 3.

There were statistically significant differences between help sought and help received were revealed, for the urban group for items 4 and 8 which dealt in turn with frustration and apprehension and for the suburban group for items 5 and 8. Item 5 dealt with feelings of inadequacy.

Item 2 was perceived by the rural group as the second most important area in terms of need for assistance. Both the urban and suburban groups selected it fourth place.

Coping with apprehension related to the adequacy of professional preparation for teaching was rated the top area of concern for suburban beginning teachers and interns, third for the urban group and fourth for the rural group. For this particular item, urban and suburban groups had greater differences between the means for help wanted and received of 0.54 and 0.65 and rural beginning teachers and interns had a difference of 0.19.

Discussion. The rural group seemed to do better in adjusting to the new role than they did in the other adjustments. Possibly this was because they worked in smaller communities; they were more visible and were more conscious of the role expectations others had of them.

Again there was a difference in item number and item order when the highest means for help wanted were looked at. Rural beginning teachers and interns seemed to have had more concern about meeting the demands of superordinates than did the other two groups but, to compensate, the rural group was much more confident about its preparation for teaching.

No ready reason presented itself to explain why the rural group sensed such a high need for help in meeting the demands of superordinates. The data provided no direct evidence of unreasonable superiors in rural schools and the rural group did not rate the teaching load very highly in the adjustment to the school as did the urban and suburban beginning teachers and interns to the school. It was surprising, then, to see the high concern the rural group expressed about coping with the demands of superordinates.

Urban and suburban beginning teachers and interns felt inadequately prepared for teaching, whereas rural teachers felt much more confident. With four exceptions, the complete sample of 102 were trained at the same university and presumably were exposed to many of the same experiences during their professional preparation. If inadequacy of preparation is perceived by two groups and confidence is perceived by the third, then the answer might have been found in the location variable. If this is so, what makes rural beginning teachers and interns feel so much more confident than their city and near-city peers? Perhaps rural community standards are different, perhaps teachers and interns have higher status in the smaller rural areas. Whatever the reason, different locations seemed to generate different values about the areas where help needs to be sought.

Table V.4 has been constructed to show the numbers of statistically significant differences detected in the means in the six areas of adjustment and their relationship to the location groups.

Table V.4. Statistically Significant Mean Differences Encountered by Location Groups in Six Areas of Adjustment

Area of Adjustment	Location Groups	
	HW[1]	HG[2]
Community	6	3
School system	0	0
School	0	0
Classroom	1	0
Field of education	1	0
New role	1	0

[1]HW = Help wanted [2]HG = Help given

There was little in Table V.4 to suggest that location was a variable of consequence in the six areas of adjustment.

S. Chapter Summary

The six areas of adjustment which the literature suggested were common sources of difficulties for those in their first teaching year were examined with respect to the sex, age group and location of the participants. Each of these six areas was examined in turn, first in terms of sex, then of age group and finally location. The means of help wanted and help received were calculated and inferences drawn about what differences between these means might indicate.

Sex of the Participants

Table V.5 has been prepared to show the means for help desired and help obtained for each of the six areas of adjustment for males and females. Differences between means for help desired and obtained which were statistically significant have been recorded together with significant differences between the males and females for help desired as well as for help obtained. Where the mean for help obtained was greater than, or equal to, the mean for help desired, this has also been recorded.

Adjustment to the community. In proportion, males received more help than females in meeting their needs, slight though they were, in adjusting to their new communities. In terms of degree of difficulty, this section was not of great consequence.

Adjustment to the school system. Males had higher expressed needs than females but because so much help was given to males when compared to that given to females, males coped better relatively with the difficulties of adjusting to the school system than did the females.

Adjustment to the school. Males and females sought approximately the same help in this adjustment area. Males receive slightly more help than females. Both groups recognized, as most important, forming a link with an experienced teacher. Second in importance, both groups

Table V.5 Males and Females in Six Adjustment Areas

Adjustment Area	Group	Mean[1] HD[2]	Mean[1] HO[3]	Mean Diff. HD-HO	Significant Items (t)	Item Nos. HO≥HD	Scheffe or (t) HD	(t) HO
Community	a[4]. Males N=40	1.27	1.06	0.21	2, 3, 5, 6	Nil	Nil	Nil
Items:N=6	b[5]. Females N=62	0.98	0.78	0.20	4, 5, 6	Nil		
School system	a. Males	3.03	2.59	0.44	3, 4,	Nil	Nil	(a-b)2, 3
Items:N=4	b. Females	2.89	2.17	0.72	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil		
School	a. Males	2.64	2.40	0.24	2, 4, 8, 9	1, 6, 7	Nil	Nil
Items:N=10	b. Females	2.62	2.33	0.29	2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10	6, 7		
Classroom	a. Males	2.35	1.97	0.38	2, 4, 5, 12, 15, 16, 17	14	(b-a)11	Nil
Items:N=17	b. Females	2.40	1.93	0.47	1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17	Nil		
Field of education	a. Males	1.91	1.97	-0.06	Nil	1, 2, 4, 6	Nil	Nil
Items:N=6	b. Females	2.18	2.02	0.16	3	2		
New role	a. Males	1.60	1.61	-0.01	Nil	1, 3, 6, 7	(b-a)4, 5	Nil
Items:N=8	b. Females	1.93	1.57	0.36	4, 5, 6, 8	3		

[1]Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great
[2]HD=Help desired [3]HO=Help obtained [4]a=Males [5]b=Females

chose learning school routines. A general similarity was detected in the remaining eight items. For example, both groups selected the same five items for ranks 6 to 10 although there was some difference in order of ranking. It was concluded tha there were no differences between males and females in adjusting to the school.

Adjustment to the classroom. One of the few occasions when females wanted more help than males occurred in this section and the difference between the means for help wanted by males and females was statistically significant with the females having the higher need to see experienced teachers teaching. In four of the seventeen items females received more help than males. But this was not a general pattern. In the main, the males received an overall better response to their calls for help than did females.

It was noted earlier that there was little correlation between the needs for help expressed and the degree to which help was given. This was shown by the nineteen statistically significant mean differences between help desired and obtained. Seven were related to males and twelve to females.It was concluded that there was evidence that the sex of the beginning teachers and interns was related to the problems they faced in adjusting to the classroom.

Adjustment to the field of education. In this section, too, females expressed higher needs for help than males but the differences were small. In four of the six items, males received more help than they sought. Females received more help than they sought in one item. Both groups were aware of the desirability of gaining the approval of the parents of their students. For the second and third choices, both groups jointly ranked items 1 and 2. The overall data for this section led to the suggestion that the sex of the participants did not unduly influence the entry to the field of education.

Adjustment to the new role. Females tended to have a more difficult time than males in dealing with psychological problems posed in this section. The overall means for help wanted by the males was almost exactly matched by the mean for help received. The average of the differences between the help wanted and received by females was 0.36 which represented a recognizable degree of unmet need over the section as a whole. For four of the eight items in this adjustment area, females had statistically significant differences between the means for help desired and obtained; there were no such statistically significant differences for males. The Scheffe procedure detected that, for two items, females had a higher need for help than did males.

The findings from this section have been interpreted to mean that males had less difficulty than females in adjusting to the new role.

Age Group of the Participants

Table V.6 has recorded means for help desired and obtained in the six adjustment areas by the younger and older groups, and where differences between these means were statistically significant, they have been recorded. The Scheffe procedure was used to detect statistically significant mean differences between the two age groups for both help desired and help obtained. Items for which help given exceeded help sought have also been recorded.

Adjustment to the community. As the averages of the means for help wanted by the younger and older age groups were 1.15 and 1.04 respectively, no great help was sought by either age group, thus deficiencies in help given were of no consequence. Age group apparently had no discernible influence in any problems there might have been between the younger and older groups in settling into the new community.

Table V.6 Age Group Differences in Six Adjustment Areas

Adjustment Area	Group	Mean[1] HD[2]	Mean[1] HO[3]	Mean Diff. HD-HO	Significant Items (t)	Item Nos. HO≥HD	Scheffe or (t) HD	(t) HO
Community	a[4].Younger N=52	1.15	0.92	0.23	3, 5, 6	1	Nil	Nil
Items:N=6	b[5].Older N=50	1.04	0.87	0.17	6	Nil		
School system	a. Younger	3.01	2.34	0.67	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil	Nil	Nil
Items:N=4	b. Older	2.89	2.33	0.56	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil		
School	a. Younger	2.63	2.44	0.19	2, 4, 8, 9	1, 3, 6, 7	Nil	(a-b)5
Items:N=10	b. Older	2.63	2.28	0.35	2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10	7		
Classroom	a. Younger	2.36	1.98	0.38	1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16	14	(b-a)11	Nil
Items:N=17	b. Older	2.40	1.92	0.48	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17	14		
Field of education	a. Younger	2.13	2.08	0.05	Nil	2, 4, 6	Nil	(a-b)6
Items:N=6	b. Older	2.02	1.91	0.11	3	4		
New role	a. Younger	1.83	1.83	0.00	Nil	1, 3, 6, 7	(a-b)2	(a-b)1, 2, 4, 6, 7
Items:N=8	b. Older	1.77	1.33	0.44	4, 5, 6, 7, 8	Nil		

[1]Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great
[2]HD=Help desired [3]HO=Help obtained [4]a=23 years and younger [5]b=24 years and older

Adjustment to the school system. Possibly the increased maturity of the older group allowed its members to view problems associated with the school system less seriously than did members of the younger group. Again it was noted that the degree of help offered was not influenced by the wants of the participants of the study. Both groups regarded this section as the one in which the highest degree of help would be sought. Overall, age group to which the participants belonged did not seem to be related to difficulties in adjusting to the school system.

Adjustment to the school. The younger group was given preferred treatment in every item bar one, although both the younger and older groups had expressed the desire for help to the same degree. Age was no impediment to the warmth of welcome given by colleagues longer associated with the school. It was concluded that the variable, age group, did not meaningfully affect difficulties encountered by the beginning teachers and interns in their adjustment to the school.

Adjustment to the classroom. Because the overall means for help desired and obtained differed so little and because the statistically significant mean differences were comparable, it was concluded that the age group to which respondents belonged was not a convincing contributing factor to the perceptions of the participants of the seriousness of problems faced by them in the classroom.

Adjustment to the field of education. There was a higher need for help expressed for all items by the younger group but, because they received so much help, the final result was a very good balance between the residual help wanted for the two groups. Both the younger and older participants received almost what they asked for. It was concluded that age group made no difference to the problems associated with the adjustment to the field of education.

Adjustment to the new role. There were five items out of the eight where statistically significant differences were found between the means for help wanted and received by the older group and none for the younger group. The younger group received significantly more help than the older group for five items and in all cases the younger group had a higher mean. The final outcome revealed a noticeable balance between help wanted and received by the younger group. The younger group received more help than the older group for all items, and perceived the importance of the items differently from the older group. The degree of help wanted by the older group exceeded the degree of help given by 0.44. Because the degree of unmet need for the younger group was 0 and for the older group, 0.44, together with the eight statistically significant differences already mentioned, the conclusion arrived at was that age group probably was related to the difficulties encountered by beginning teachers and interns in adjusting to the new role.

Location of the Participants

A summary of means for help desired and obtained, means which were statistically significant and items in the six adjustment areas in which more help was received than sought, has been prepared for Table V.7 to display differences, if any, between the younger and the older age groups.

Adjustment to the community. The group as a whole sought little help and it was of little consequence that the help received fell short of what was sought. If there was help needed then it was needed by the rural group. Urban and suburban respondents seemed to be more self-reliant than did the rural group. The rural participants reported the highest general mean for help wanted and they had the highest general mean for help received but despite receiving the most help, so great was their degree of help wanted that they had the highest difference between the means for help wanted and received. Because the means for help wanted were small, despite the twelve statistically significant mean differences, the location of paricipants

Table V.7 Location Differences in Six Adjustment Areas

Adjustment Area	Group	Mean[1] HD[2]	Mean[1] HO[3]	Mean Diff. HD-HO	Significant Items (t)	Item Nos. HO≥HD	Scheffe or (t) HD	(t) HO
Community Items:N=6	a[4]. Urban N=36	0.77	0.59	0.18	6	Nil	(c-a)1, 2,	(c-a)1
	b[4]. Suburban N=34	1.05	0.98	0.07	Nil	2, 4	3, 4	(c-b)1
	c[4]. Rural N=32	1.50	1.15	0.35	2, 3, 4, 6	1	(c-b)1	(b-a)3
							(b-a)3	
School system Items:N=4	a. Urban	2.91	2.21	0.70	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil	Nil	Nil
	b. Suburban	2.97	2.46	0.51	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil		
	c. Rural	2.95	2.35	0.60	1, 2, 3, 4	Nil		
School Items:N=10	a. Urban	2.58	2.36	0.22	2, 4, 7, 8, 9	3, 6, 7	Nil	Nil
	b. Suburban	2.69	2.44	0.25	2, 4, 5	1		
	c. Rural	2.62	2.27	0.35	2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10	1, 7		
Classroom Items:N=17	a. Urban	2.41	1.97	0.44	1, 4, 5, 8, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17	14	(c-a)2	Nil
						14		
	b. Suburban	2.36	2.05	0.31	4, 11, 12, 15, 16	Nil		
	c. Rural	2.36	1.82	0.54	1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17			
Field of education Items:N=6	a. Urban	2.11	2.03	0.08	3	2, 4, 5, 6	(a-b)1	Nil
	b. Suburban	2.03	1.99	0.04	Nil	1, 2, 4, 6		
	c. Rural	2.08	1.98	0.10	Nil	2, 4		
New role Items:N=8	a. Urban	1.86	1.60	0.26	4, 8	7	(b-c)8	Nil
	b. Suburban	1.89	1.63	0.26	5, 8	3		
	c. Rural	1.63	1.52	0.11	Nil	3,7		

[1]Means were computed from the following response categories - Key: 0....None 1....Little 2....Moderate 3....Great 4....Very great
[2]HD=Help desired [3]HO=Help obtained [4]a=Urban [5]b=Suburban [6]c=Intern

did not seem to be related to difficulties encountered by them in adjusting to the community.

Adjustment to the school system. Respondents from all three areas recognized that they would need a high degree of assistance in adjusting to the school system. Much help was given to beginning teachers and interns in urban, suburban and rural schools but in no case was there enough given. Overall it did not matter a great deal where the school was located, the problems encountered by beginning teachers and interns in adjusting to the school system had to be dealt with by them using more of their own resources than they wished to make up for the deficit in help given to them.

Adjustment to the school. The problems faced by urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns were very much alike. All three subgroups chose the same two items in the same order for their two areas of highest degree of help sought. These areas were concerned with forming a link with an experienced teacher and learning school routines. There was no evidence to suggest that location was an influential variable in the adjustment to the school

Adjustment to the classroom. Differences in perceived needs were very evident in adjusting to the classroom for urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns. Some problems were common to all subgroups but were not regarded with the same importance. Other problems were shared by two subgroups only. It was difficult not to conclude that school location had an influence on what problems had to be faced and the degree of importance that was allotted to them.

Adjustment to the field of education. Urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns differed by only small amounts in their perceived need for help. Similarly, the three subgroups differed very slightly in the degree of help obtained. However, there were noticeable differences in the items in which the help received exceeded the help sought. When this

inconsistency was added to the two statistically significant mean differences, it was concluded that the location of the group might have been related to the problems associated with the adjustment to the field of education. the three location subgroups had very similar experiences overall in adjusting to the field of education.

Adjustment to the new role. Probably the most surprising finding in this section was the high ranking of level of assistance wanted by rural beginning teachers and interns in meeting the demands of superordinates. To a slightly lesser degree, there was surprise that urban and suburban beginning teachers and interns felt less adequately prepared for teaching than did those in rural schools. It appeared, then, that school location influenced the adjustment of beginning teachers and interns to the new role.

General Conclusion

There was little evidence to suggest, that overall, the sex of the participants was related to their adjustments to the six potential areas of difficulty. With caution, it might be said that males were more favoured than females in adjusting to the school system, to the classroom and to the new role.

Again, overall, age group was unrelated to the adjustment to the six areas of difficulty. However, in the particular adjustment to the new role, it appeared that the younger group had less difficulty than the older group.

There were stronger indications of difference among the location groups than among the sex and age groups. These differences showed up in adjusting to the classroom. In this area of adjustment, beginning teachers and interns in different locations seemed to have different perceptions of the nature and gravity of problems. In adjusting to the new role, the seriousness of the difficulties encountered by all three groups appeared to be viewed in distinctly different ways.

Chapter VI

DEALING WITH PROBLEMS: TEACHER CATEGORIES

In this chapter, the five subproblems which were not addressed in Chapters IV and V were dealt with in turn in relation to teacher categories. Relevant data and findings were presented for each subproblem and each of the five sections concluded with a discusion of the findings. The chapter concluded with a summary. Subproblems 3 to 7 were as follows:

- To identify the personnel consulted by beginning teachers in dealing with critical events they faced in Alberta secondary schools;
- To identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the development stages of mentoring;
- To identify factors which would encourage the beginning teacher to regard a helper-beginning teacher as one of mentor-protege;
- To seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them and to relate these perceptions to various personal and positional variables; and
- To seek the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

A. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted

To identify the personnel consulted by beginning teachers in dealing with critical events they faced in Alberta secondary schools.

Findings. The total group consisted of 102 participants. Those who responded to the request to identify critical events were asked to disclose the positions of personnel who were approached for help in dealing with the identified critical events. This resulted in 421 approaches to personnel for help. The identification of these personnel was done by describing the positions they held. Of the 96 respondents who declared they had problems, only 86 identified the personnel whom they approached for help. As responses were received from 96 participants, there were presumably 6 who had had no problems or who had decided to ignore the question. Some, in fact, said that they had had no problems which they had considered merited mention. Those who left the section blank were telephoned and it was confirmed that they too had had no problems. This was a weakness in the questionnaire design. In retrospect, provision of space for a check mark to indicate that there had been no problems should have been provided.

The 421 approaches made to personnel for assistance in dealing with the 264 identified critical events were made to holders of 20 quite specific offices or social links. The personnel approached were shown in Table VI.1 by occupations or connection and frequency of approach.

Table VI.1 showed the types of people that 86 of the 96 respondents went to with the 264 difficulties described in Table VI.2. Teachers were approached 155 times while principals were approached 84 times, the second most numerous, down to 1 approach made to a doctor and a mentor.

Table VI.1 Frequency of Type of Personnel Approached for Assistance

Category	Frequency of Approach			
	TotalGroup N=86	Second year Teacher N=31	First Year Teacher N=28	Interns N=27
Teacher	155	48	47	60
Principal	84	28	41	15
Department head	55	12	26	17
Vice principal	27	7	11	9
Family	25	7	11	7
Friend	20	8	2	10
Counsellor	9	1	3	5
Consultant	7	1	5	1
Superintendent	6	1	2	3
Supervising teacher	6	0	0	6
Administrator	6	3	0	3
Parents of students	5	3	0	2
Assistant superintendent	3	0	2	1
Ex teacher	3	0	3	0
ATA representative	2	1	0	1
Trustee	2	2	0	0
Librarian	2	0	1	1
Pupil personnel director	2	0	1	1
Doctor	1	1	0	0
Mentor	1	0	1	0

Discussion. This did not necessarily mean that 84 different principals were involved. For example, in a particular school there might have been two participants in the study. If one of these participants went to the principal with the three problems and the other went with two, this would be recorded as five approaches to the principal. The popularity of the principal might in fact have been the nature of the problem which demanded that the principal be consulted.

First year teachers made much more use of superordinates than did second year teachers and interns. The least use of principals was made by interns. Possibly interns, especially if the department head were a supervisor, had little need to approach principals for assistance. That counsellors and consultants appeared so far down the frequency list was not necessarily a reflection on their competetnce in dealing with the needs of the beginning teachers and interns but rather their needs were being satisfied by other personnel.

The most obvious discovery was that beginning teachers and interns prefer by far to seek assistance from fellow teachers than from any other category. The literature agreed with this finding but suggested that this was due to superordinates being seen as a threat to those seeking assistance. This was not borne out by the next three most frequent categories which all belong to superordinates, namely, principal, department head and vice principal.

Thus, the personnel consulted by the beginning teachers in dealing with critical events were identified.

B. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers

To identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the developmental stdges of mentoring.

There were 264 critical events reported by 96 respondents. Six members of the total sample reported that they had had no difficulties that would have been relevant to this study.

Findings. To cope with the 264 critcal events, it was necessary to generate 43 categories. Table VI.2 was used to show the most frequently mentioned categories by the three teacher types. Frequencies of items not listed in Table VI.2 are shown below:-

- Frequency 4: Unrealistic expectations of the school community, difficulties with peers.
- Frequency 3: Degrading behaviour towards teacher, professional isolation, inadequate preparation for teaching, divided loyalties.
- Frequency 2: Interns' salary, intern has no classroom of his/her own, policy,counselling, meetings, teacher apathy.
- Frequency 1: Examination compilation, taking over an underachieving grade, objectivity, co-ed physical education, false reports, fake notes, students near the age of the teacher, culture, student integration.

In placing 264 responses into 43 categories, some difficulties were encountered. Some reported difficulties could have been placed in more than one category. For example, if the stated problem concerned a boy making insulting comments to a young lady teacher, an argument could be made for classifying this event under discipline, classroom management or degrading behaviour towards a teacher.

As far as possible, a distinction was made between discipline and classroom management. The discipline category was used when the word discipline was used by the respondent or when the response clearly described a breach of standard behaviour. Classroom management was used in a much broader sense.

A definition of a mentor was given and this definition emphasized the two components which Clawson claimed were essential for a mentor association. These components were mutuality and comprehensiveness. Respondents were asked to rate the stage of the mentor association they had had in their first year of teaching on a Likert Scale. The scale ranged from 0 to 4 where 0 represented **Did not exist** and 4 represented **Was fully operational**. Table VI.3 was used to show the assessment of the various groups of teachers on this continuum from 0 to 4.

Table VI.2 Frequencies of Choice of Critical Events by Whole Group and Three Subgroups

Item No.	Category	Total Sample Freq. N=96	Rank order	2nd Year Teachers Freq. N=33	Rank Order	1st Year TeachersFreq. N=32	Rank Order	Interns Freq. N=31	Rank Order
14	Discipline	50	1	14	1	13	1	23	1
23	Extra-curricular activities	14	2	5	3.5[1]	6	3	3	9[1]
31	Student apathy	13	3	2	14.5[1]	2	15[1]	9	2
10	Time organization	12	5[1]	4	5.5[1]	3	10.5[1]	5	5[1]
24	Teaching load	12	5[1]	7	2	1	20[1]	4	7
41	Resources	12	5[1]	2	14.5[1]	9	2	1	15.5[1]
9	Inadequate teaching skills	11	7	1	20[1]	5	4.5[1]	5	5[1]
34	Parents	10	8	3	8.5[1]	4	7[1]	3	9[1]
5	Curriculum	9	10[1]	4	5.5[1]	5	4.5[1]	0	20.5[1]
6	Evaluation by teacher	9	10[1]	3	8.5[1]	4	7[1]	2	11.5[1]
21	Unqualified for teaching assignment	9	10[1]	2	14.5[1]	2	15[1]	5	5[1]
2	Intern role ambiguity	7	13[1]	0	22	1	20[1]	6	3
19	Evaluation of teacher	7	13[1]	5	3.5[1]	1	20[1]	1	15.5[1]
43	Preparation and planning	7	13[1]	2	14.5[1]	4	7[1]	1	15.5[1]
11	Classroom organization	6	16[1]	2	14.5[1]	3	10.5[1]	1	15.5[1]
18	Feedback on performance	6	16[1]	2	14.5[1]	1	20[1]	3	9[1]
22	Oversized classes	6	16[1]	2	14.5[1]	3	10.5[1]	1	15.5[1]
12	Heir to established routine	5	19[1]	3	8.5[1]	2	15[1]	0	20.5[1]
25	Corrections	5	19[1]	2	14.5[1]	3	10.5[1]	0	20.5[1]
33	Conflict with superordinates	5	19[1]	1	20[1]	2	15[1]	2	11.5[1]
4	Employment	4	21.5[1]	3	8.5[1]	1	20[1]	0	20.5[1]
17	Insecurity	4	21.5[1]	1	20[1]	2	15[1]	1	15.5[1]

[1]Indicates tied rank

Table VI.3 Mentor Association Scale

Did not exist 0 1 2 3 4 **Was fully operational**

Group	N	Mean
Total group	102	3.25
Second year teachers	34	3.29
First year teachers	35	3.00
Interns	33	3.48

Discussion. Of the 102 participants in the study, 96 admitted to at least one critical event or problem in their first teaching year. Thus there were six respondents who could not be categorized. Some reported in the questionnaire that they had not encountered any problems worth relating. Those who left the section blank were contacted by telephone and it was confirmed that they, too, had had no problems.

The category of problem with the greatest frequency by far was discipline. This was the case for second year teachers recalling their entry year to teaching, first year teachers and interns. Interns returned the highest percentage of discipline problems being reported by 23 of the 31 interns who responded. This was a surprising finding as it conflicted with the finding in item 6, *adjustment to the classroom* where it was found that discipline problems were a concern of first year teachers only. Indeed it was found there that interns had received more help than they had asked for in matters pertaining to discipline.

As discipline was mentioned as a problem by 50 of the 96 who responded to this question and the next highest frequency was 14, it was readily seen that discipline was the outstanding problem. It was unfortunate that the second and third highest scoring problems, *extra-curricular activities* and *student apathy*, had not been anticipated in the sections *adjustment to the school* and *adjustment to the classroom*. All the other problems listed in Table VI.2 were seen as difficulties in the examination of the six adjustments described in Chapter

IV.

The score for student apathy was inordinately high for interns. This possibly could be linked with the score for inadequate teaching skills. Another possible explanation might lie in the way in which interns were perceived by the students. If their perception had been that interns were teachers of lesser authority than the normal classroom teacher, they might well have regarded lessons given by interns as rest periods. Teaching load was perceived by the second year teachers, when reflecting on their first year of teaching, as a bigger problem than did first year teachers and interns. This imbalance might have been caused by the different lengths of experience. Second year teachers were reflecting on a completed year whereas the other two groups could only make their judgement on three to four months experience and this short experience might well have still retained a modicum of initial enthusiasm for the first teaching appointment.

After being given the definition of a mentor for the purpose of this study, the respondents recorded their perceptions of the stage of their associations with their mentors on a mentor association scale which rated 0 as **Did not exist** and 4 as **Was fully operational**. Table VI.3 has recorded the findings and overwhelmingly, mentor associations were very much alive. The whole group mean of 3.25 was only exceeded by the mean of 3.48 for the interns. This probably indicated that interns had related well on the whole with their supervising teachers. The higher finding of 3.29 for second year teachers compared with 3.00 for first year teachers could have been due to the second year teachers having had more time to encounter difficulties and accordingly more time to discover mentors and their usefulness.

Thus the critical events were identified and categorized in terms of frequency of occurrence and of the developmental stage of mentoring. The settings in which these critical events occurred will be considered at a later stage of the development of the analysis of data.

C. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors

To identify factors which would encourage the beginning secondary teacher to regard a helper-beginner teacher association as one of mentor-protege

The respondents were asked to think about those people they went to for help. This subject was pursued by asking about the connection between the helper and the beginning teacher or intern. The quality of the relationships was alluded to by asking the nature of the topics spoken about. The frequency of interaction was sought and finally qualities, real and desired, of helpers were asked to be listed.

Findings. Respondents were asked to identify qualities, real or desired, that they thought would be to the advantage of beginning teachers and interns if possessed by a mentor. There was a response from 99 of the 102 participants offering from one to ten qualities. In total, 581 qualities were suggested and these required 65 categories. Table VI.4 was constructed to show the top eleven qualities as ranked by the subgroups.

Discussion. In naming the 65 categories to accommodate the 581 qualities submitted by the whole group, there was a deal of difficulty due to the subtle differences in meaning between category titles and sometimes a fair degree of overlap between titles. For example, how discrete are items 35, 36 and 67, *similar interests, similar problems* and *similar value systems* ? Or, are item 47 *integrity*, and item 43, *honesty*, completely different?

In Table VI.4 where the eleven qualities with the highest frequencies were listed, eight out of the eleven related to the beginning teachers and interns as people with sensitivities and not to subject content. Perhaps this could have indicated that those being inducted to teaching were aware that they had feelings and that those in positions of authority ought to have recognized this.

When the same eleven items from Table VI.4 were listed alongside the eleven corresponding choices from the subgroups in Table VI.5 it turned out that there was a high

Table VI.4 Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by Whole Group

Category	Item number	Frequency	Percentage
Willingness to help	25	40	40.4
Experience	58	38	38.4
Empathy	1	37	37.4
Professionalism	54	28	28.3
Friendliness	22	26	26.3
Trustworthiness	41	22	22.2
Good Listener	11	22	22.2
Sense of humour	31	20	20.2
Knowledgeable	19	19	19.2
Sound advisor	63	18	18.2
Concern	4	18	18.2

Frequencies below 18 are the following: Frequency 17: Openness
Frequency 15: Generosity
Frequency 14: Honest

Frequency 13: Personality, availability, encouraging
Frequency 11: Interestedness, similar interests
Frequency 10: Caring, acceptance

Frequency 8: Supportive, intelligent, mutual respect
Frequency 7: Enthusiasm, sincerity
Frequency 6: Considerate, easy to work with, politically aware, attitude towards students

Frequency 5: Positive feedback, compassionate, cheerful, similar problems, shares ideas,has realistic expectations, organized, patience
Frequency 4: Kind, sympathetic, non-judgemental, constructive critic, older, peer
Frequency 3: Resourceful, reliable, impartial, integrity, less than five years experience, authority

Frequency 2: Calm, flexible, down to earth, humanistic, dedicated, wants an intern, similar value system
Frequency 1: Reasonable, generous, informal in private, sexy, loyalty, influential, logical, same sex as mentor

To assist the reader, the 68 (3 were not used, 30, 38 and 49) have been recorded with their item numbers. Reference will generally be made to item numbers only:

1...Empathy 2...Positive feedback 3...Kind 4...On going concern
5...Supportive 6...Caring 7...Sympathy 8...Considerate 9... Calm
10...Compassionate 11...Good listener 12...Interestedness 13... Reasonable

14...Patience 15...Generosity 16...Acceptance 17...Resourceful
18...Reliable 19...Knowledgeable 20...Intelligent 21... Approachable
22...Friendly 23...Personality 24...Availability 25...Willingness to help

26... Easy to work with 27...Encouraging 28...Flexibility 29... Private informality
30...Has goals 31...Sense of humour 32...Cheerful 33...Sexy
34...Enthusiasm 35...Similar interests 36...Similar problems

37...Sharing ideas 38...Sports minded 39...Down to earth 40... Humanistic
41...Trustworthy 42...Mutual respect 43...Honest 44...Sincerity
45...Impartiality 46...Loyalty 47...Integrity 48...Non-judgemental

49...Discretion 50...Influence 51...Politically aware 52... Authority
53...Attitude towards students 54...Professionalism 55... Constructive critic
56...Dedication 57..Realistic expectations 58...Experienced 59...Age

60...Less than five years experience 61...Logical 62...Openness 63... Sound advisor
64...Organized 65...Peer 66...Intern requested 67...Similar value system
68...Sex of mentor

The eleven most frequently mentioned qualities desired in mentors by the group were given in Table VI.4. These will be given again and listed against the eleven most frequently mentioned qualities as shown by the three subgroups. These have been compiled in Table VI.5 using item numbers:

Table VI.5 Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by Whole Group and Subgroups

Item	Whole Group	Item	Second Year Teachers	Item	First Year Teachers	Item	Intern Teachers
25	40	25	17	25	13	58	12
58	38	1	16	1	13	54	11
1	37	58	14	58	12	22	11
54	28	54	9	11	12	19	11
22	26	41	9	24	9	25	10
11	22	63	7	22	8	1	8
41	22	11	7	54	8	41	8
31	20	22	7	4	6	4	7
19	19	31	7	5	6	12	7
4	18	62	6	63	6	31	7
63	18	4	5	31	6	62	6

correlation in the items chosen but not in their rank order.

Of the eleven items chosen by the whole group, ten of them were chosen by the second year teachers, nine by first year teachers and by interns. Seven of the eleven items chosen by the whole group were also chosen by each of the subgroups. These were items 25, 58, 1, 54, 22, 31 and 4. Of these seven all-group items, only two of them dealt with professional matters and those were items 58 and 54. The other five dealt with personality characteristics. In defining the term mentor, Clawson's insistence on a mutuality component, which has been included in the definition of mentor for this study, has gained much support from the desirable mentor qualities offered by the respondents.

Only three solitary item choices were made. First year teachers were the only group to select items 24 and 5 and interns only picked item 12. The total group, second year and first year teachers all chose in some order, items 25, 58 and 1 as their first three choices. Interns only chose item 58 from the common top three items of the other groups. Second and first year teachers did in fact choose them in the same order, items 25, 1 and 58. This would suggest that the ideal mentor, among other qualities, must first of all be an empathetic and willing helper to satisfy the needs of fully practising teachers in their first teaching year. Interns rated *experience* and *professionalism* very highly followed by *knowledgeable* and *friendly*. Perhaps by being so close to their supervising teachers, interns took affective qualities more for granted than their beginning teacher colleagues who were working in isolation in their classrooms.

Thus by defining the term mentor and eliciting desired mentor qualities and ranking them according to frequency occurrence, factors which would encourage beginning secondary teachers to regard helper-beginning teacher associations as mentor-protege associations were discovered.

D. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations

To seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them and to relate these perceptions to various personal and positional variables.

The effects, if any, of personal and positional variables will be discussed later in the analysis of data. For the moment the analysis will consist of an examination of the perceptions of the three teacher types as a complete group and as subgroups, namely second year teachers reflecting on their first teaching year experiences, first year teachers and interns.

Findings. Respondents were asked to list advantages and disadvantages they had experienced as a result of a mentor association. Prior to their first teaching year, 57 of the respondents reported having derived 100 advantages. Not all mentor associations, however, were without blemish as 20 of these 57 respondents also noted 22 disadvantages. These findings have been recorded in Tables VI.6 and VI.7 and in the text following those tables.

The first year of teaching mentor associations were examined for perceived advantages and disadvantages, and were placed in Tables VI.8 and VI.9. There were 162 advantages listed by 94 teachers and 68 disadvantages submitted by 55 teachers.

Respondents were asked to rate mentor associations prior to and during the first year of teaching on a scale from 0 to 4 where 0 denoted **Did not exist** to 4 which denoted **Was fully operational**.

Discussion. Table VI.6 has indicated that 57 respondents had experienced a pre-teaching mentor association and had derived 100 advantages. Of these 57 respondents, 20 of them listed 22 disadvantages. From simple arithmetic, then, 37 of the respondents who had had a pre-teaching mentor association had had no negative experiences due to the mentor association. Further the advantages exceeded the disadvantages numerically by 78. This interpretation would have supported the contention that the pre-teaching mentor associations were a success.

Table VI.6 Frequencies of Advantages Derived from Pre-Teaching Mentor Association
N=57

Category	Item No	Total Group Frequency	2nd Year Teacher Frequency	1st Year Teacher Frequency	Intern Teacher Frequency
Professional growth	8	18	6	5	7
Support	4	12	4	6	2
Guidance	3	11	3	4	4
Personal growth	12	7	3	0	4
Encouragement	16	7	2	3	2
Preparation	19	7	5	2	0

Frequencies below 7 with their categories follow:

Frequency 6: Friendship
Frequency 5: Resources made available, confidence
Frequency 4: Became politically aware, motivation

Frequency 3: Sounding board, thinking influenced, support when wanted
Frequency 2: General advice, moral support
Frequency 1: Reassurance

Table VI.7 Frequencies of Disadvantages Experienced in a Pre- Teaching Mentor Association
N=20

Category	Item No.	Frequency
Dependence	2	3
Transfer of prejudices and fears	6	3
Individuality sacrificed	3	2
Bias	4	2
Ability overestimated	5	2

Frequencies of 1 with their categories follow:

Frequency 1: Personality clash, too close socially, work overload, insecurity, social pressure, conflict with superordinates, culture shock, lack of confidence in mentor, individuality had to be fought for, association not fully operational

Table VI.8 Frequencies of Advantages Derived from First Teaching Mentor Association

Category	Item Number	Total Group Frequency	2nd Year Teachers Frequency	1st Year Teachers Frequency	Intern Teacher Frequency
Induction support	5	29	11	8	10
Professional growth	8	26	9	8	9
Confidence	10	14	7	4	3
Guidance	3	11	3	6	2
Political awareness	9	9	5	2	2
General advice	7	8	1	2	5

Frequency 7: Psychological assistance, personal growth, moral support
Frequency 6: Encouragement, reassurance
Frequency 5: Resources made available, sounding board, support when wanted

Frequency 3: Experimentation encouraged, support, helped to cope with a tough job
Frequency 2: Motivation, thinking influenced, satisfaction
Frequency 1: Preparation, friendship

Table VI.9 Frequencies of Disadvantages Experienced in the First Year Teaching Mentor Association

Category	Item No	Whole Group Frequency	2nd Year Teachers Frequency	1st Year Teachers Frequency	Intern Teacher Frequency
Unavailability	17	8	3	4	1
Individuality sacrificed	3	5	0	1	4
Dependence	2	4	1	1	2
Excessive demands by neophyte on mentor causing guilt	25	4	2	2	0

Frequency 3: Too close socially, inhibited, self-conscious, different interests, mentor knew only his own field, mentor took disagreements personally
Frequency 2: Ability overestimated, unprofessional gossip, denigrated, insecurity, helped at wrong time

Frequency 1: Personality clash, bias, teacher was out of touch having more than six years experience, supervising teacher took everything personally, thwarted, lack of objectivity, cliques, embarrassment, stress from being evaluated by the helper, supervising teacher not politically aware, dictator, mentor lost interest, mentor accountable for the actions of protege when mentor's advice is acted upon, conflict with superordinates, association not fully operational, lack of confidentiality, judged, faults uncorrected, too many supervisors

Frequency counts of the top five categories in both advantages and disadvantages resulting from the pre-teaching mentor associations helped put the results in perspective. The top five categories from Table VI.6 have a cumulative frequency of 55 whereas the corresponding cumulative frequency from Table VI.7 amounts to 12.

When the same procedure was carried out with the top four categories in both advantages and disadvantages resulting from the first year mentor association the results were 89 advantages against 21 disadvantages. This not only indicated success for mentor associations but also indicated the degree of success.

There were 61 respondents who rated their pre-teacher mentor association on a scale from 0 to 4 where 0 represented **Did not exist** and 4 **Was fully operational**. The weighted mean was 3.07 which meant that pre-teaching proteges were highly involved with their mentors.

All 102 members of the sample as already reported responded to the invitation to rate their first year teaching mentor association. The scale went from 0 which indicated **Did not exist** to 4 which indicated **Was fully operational**. Including 4 respondents who chose 0 for their answer, the weighted mean was 3.26 which indicated that mentor associations during the first teaching year were highly active. The corresponding means from the subgroups were:

Second year teachers	3.29
First year teachers	3.00
Interns	3.48

The very high mean of the rating by interns could be a very favourable reflection of the rapport which existed between them and their supervising teachers.

Thus the perceptions of beginning teachers and interns of the success of mentor-protege associations were identified and related to the whole group and the three subgroups, second year teachers reflecting on their induction year, first year teachers and interns.

E. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations

To seek the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

Findings. Respondents were asked for their opinion regarding the advantage to a beginning teacher of having a mentor. A scale was provided which ranged from 0 to 4 where 0 denoted **No use** and 4 denoted **Great use**. Respondents were asked to circle one of the numbers from 0 to 4. Returns from the whole group and the three subgroups were used to calculate means for each group. The means were as follows:

Whole group, mean = 3.72

Second year teachers, mean = 3.91

First year teachers, mean = 3.57

Interns, mean = 3.70

Discussion. The means for all four groups exceeded 3.50. This indicated very high appreciation of the use of mentors as perceived by the beginning teachers and interns in the study.

Thus, the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching were found.

F. Chapter Summary

Only six participants claimed that they had experienced no critical events in their first year of teaching. In all, 264 critical events were reported by 96 beginning teachers and interns.

Fellow teachers were the most often approached group when beginning teachers and interns sought help. This was not perhaps surprising but it was of interest to note that the next three most often approached groups were superordinates, namely, principal, department head and vice principal.

The 264 critical events were placed in 43 categories. This was a problem for the researcher as some of the problems disclosed could well have been equally placed in another category. For example, inattention by students might be due to the inadequate teaching skill of the new teacher or it might be purely a discipline problem.

With its admitted weaknesses, the categorization of the critical events showed that the outstanding problem faced by beginning teachers and interns was discipline. Falling far behind discipline but closely bound in frequency, were problems dealing with extra-curricular activities, student apathy, time organization, teaching load and resources.

When the beginning teachers and interns rated their first year mentor association on a scale from 0 to 4 which represented a range from **Did not exist** to **Was fully operational**, the total sample average was 3.25. The lowest subgroup average was 3.00 given by first year teachers. It appeared, then, that the beginning teachers and interns in the study were seriously involved with mentors. The participants had now disclosed the critical events of their first teaching year and the personnel they had gone to for help. In most cases, a mentor was involved.

The participants were asked to state what attracted them to their mentors. This was done by asking the beginning teachers and interns what qualities they admired in their mentors and, in addition, what other qualities they thought a mentor should have. This generated 581 qualities which required 65 categories to cope with them. Again, as with problems earlier, there was great difficulty in deciding in which category certain descriptions should go. Some of the categories have varying overlap in their meanings.

The eleven most frequently mentioned categories in descending order of frequency were: willingness to help, experience, empathy, professionalism, friendliness, trustworthiness, good listener, sense of humour, knowledgeable, sound advisor and concern. Perhaps superordinates should have their attention drawn to the personal qualities that beginning teachers and interns would like to see in their mentors.

The sixth subproblem asked about the success of identified mentor associations. Respondents were asked about advantages and disadvantages connected with pre-teaching and first year teaching mentors. Because the advantages were so numerically larger than the disadvantages and because only a minority of teachers found disadvantages, it was concluded that beginning teachers and interns found their mentor associations very successful.

The seventh subproblem's solution was found by asking respondents to indicate how useful they believed a mentor was to a beginning teacher. They indicated their belief by circling a number on a scale which ranged fron 0 to 4 where 0 indicated **No use** to 4 which indicated **Great use**. The mean for the whole group was 3.72, the mean for the second year teachers, who were recalling their first year experiences, was 3.91, the mean for the first year teachers was 3.57 and finally, the mean for the interns was 3.70. These results have indicated that beginning teachers and interns perceived an association with a mentor in the first year of teaching to be little short of great use. It was of interest to note that the highest mean belonged to the most experienced group.

Chapter VII

DEALING WITH PROBLEMS: SEX, AGE GROUP AND LOCATION

The five subproblems of Chapter VI which were examined in relation to teacher type, were then examined in relation to sex, age group and location of the participants.

Sex of Participants

There were 40 males and 62 females in the study sample.

A. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted, Sex Differences

To identify the personnel consulted by beginning teachers in dealing with critical events they faced in Alberta secondary schools.

Findings. As has been mentioned before, 96 participants identified 264 critical events in response to an invitation to name these critical events. There were 421 approaches made to deal with the 264 critical events to holders of 20 quite specific offices or social links. The personnel approached and the frequency of approach are shown by sex in Table VII.1.

As the number of females who looked for assistance was half as great as the number of males who sought assistance, frequencies for females for particular items would be expected to reflect this imbalance when compared with frequencies for males if no difference were expected based on sex.

Table VII.1 Frequency of Type of Personnel Approached for Assistance

Category	Frequency of Approach		
	Total Group N=86	Males N=34	Females N=52
Teacher	155	55	100
Principal	84	32	52
Department head	55	17	38
Vice principal	27	15	12
Family	25	6	19
Friend	20	2	18
Counsellor	9	6	3
Consultant	7	0	7

Discussion. An examination of some of the elements in Table VII.1 disclosed a number of results which would have indicated that expected frequencies did not occur if sex was thought to be of no consequence in the results.

Supervising teachers were chosen by six females but by no males; counsellors were approached by six males and by three females; friends were approached by twenty males and two females; vice principals were approached by fifteen males and by twelve females; consultants were approached by seven females and by no males. Six of the male and female beginning teachers and interns reported no critical incidents and of the 96 who did, ten did not identify any helpers. Thus 86 helpers were identified. Despite similarities -- both males and females ranked the same three people in the same order -- it was concluded that there was a difference between male and female teachers in their choice of helpers.

B. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers, Sex Differences

To identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the developmental stages of mentoring.

Participants were asked to name three critical events which were associated with their first year of teaching or events which made excessive demands on them during the same period.

The total group consisted of 102 participants. Of these, 76 identified three critical events, two such events were identified by a further 16, and one event was offered by 4 more. Thus, 96 respondents contributed to the identification of 264 critical events in the first year of teaching. The purpose of this section was to examine these data to see if males and females differed in the number of events identified or their frequency of occurrence.

Findings. Table VII.2 has been constructed to show the problems with the eight highest frequencies identified by the whole group. These frequencies have been broken down into their male and female components. The ideal frequencies, had the total frequency been split according to the composition of the group, have been placed in parentheses.

Table VII.2 Frequency of Problems by Sex

Category	Item no.	Frequencies Male N=38	Female N=58	Total N=96
Discipline	14	19(20)	31(30)	50
Extra-curricular activities	23	7(5.6)	7(8.4)	14
Student apathy	31	9(5.2)	4(7.8)	13
Time organization	10	6(4.8)	6(7.2)	12
Teaching load	24	4(4.8)	8(7.2)	12
Resources	41	3(4.8)	9(7.2)	12
Inadequate teaching skill	9	3(4.4)	8(6.6)	11
Parents	34	4(4.0)	6(6.0)	10

Respondents were asked to record their rating of their first teaching year mentor association on a mentor association scale which ranged from 0, **Did not exist** to 4 **Was fully operational**.The whole group recorded a mean of 3.25, the male subgroup 3.15 and the female subgroup 3.32.

Discussion. Table VII.2 has not uncovered variations which stray so far from the ideal that it could be concluded that males and females differed in identifying problems or in the frequency of their occurrence. Similarly, the male and female group responses to their rating of their mentor associations in their first teaching year are not markedly different. Thus it was concluded that males and females did not differ in their perceptions of the problems faced by beginning teachers and interns.

C. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors , Sex Differences

To identify factors that would encourage the beginning secondary teacher to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege.

Findings. It has already been reported that 581 qualities desired by respondents in mentors were recorded by 99 participants. In this section, some of these qualities will be examined from the viewpoint of the sex of the contributors. The top eleven qualities selected by the group were listed in descending order of frequency of occurrence and these frequencies were divided according to the source by sex. Table VII.3 displayed these data.

Discussion. The ranking by the males of the eleven most frequently mentioned desired mentor qualities had only one change in order compared with the group ranking. This was recorded in Table VII.3. Males ranked *knowledgeable* joint sixth.

Males and females, with one difference in order, ranked the first five qualities in the same way. Females chose *empathy* for their first choice whereas males placed it third. Males gave *concern* eleventh place but females awarded it equal fifth place. Females placed *knowledgeable* eleventh. For other rankings, the order of choice compared rather evenly.

It could not be concluded with confidence that males and females differed in the choice of factors which would encourage them to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege.

Table VII.3 Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by Whole Group and Sex Subgroups

Category	Whole group N=99	Males N=37	Females N=62
Willingness to help	40	18	22
Experience	38	16	22
Empathy	37	13	24
Professionalism	28	12	16
Friendliness	26	11	15
Trustworthiness	22	7	15
Good listener	22	7	15
Sense of humour	20	7	13
Knowledgeable	19	8	11
Sound advisor	18	5	13
Concern	18	3	15

Item 21 was the twelfth choice for females with a frequency of 11. The males only accorded it a frequency of four. Item 21 was *approachability*. So, although item 21 would have appeared in the top eleven choices of both males and females, the combined frequencies added to 15 which total was less than that of item 62, *openness*, which had a combined frequency of 17.

There were some items which were chosen by one sex only. Only females chose items 15, 46, 50 and 68 all with a frequency of 1, items 39, 40 and 66 all with a frequency of 2, item 60 with a frequency of 4, item 37 with a frequency of 5 and item 51 with a frequency of 6.

The purely female chosen items have covered Clawson's two components for a mentor-protege relationship. Both mutuality and comprehensiveness were well represented. The shorter purely male list indicated a more rigid preference in the choice of *logical, reasonable, similar value system* and then a change of direction to *private informality, sexy and flexibility*.

Although there were discernible differences in choices of males and females about the qualities which would attract them to a mentor, they were insufficient to allow the conclusion that males were different from females in this regard.

Thus, the factors that would encourage male and female secondary teachers to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor -protege were identified.

D. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations, Sex Differences

To seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them and to relate these perceptions to various personal and positional variables.

This section was devoted to examining the sixth subproblem in terms of the sex of the participants.

Findings. In order to gain the perceptions of the beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations, they were asked to name advantages and disadvantages accruing from these associations. From these data an answer to the sixth subproblem would be found.

There were 162 advantages claimed by 36 male and 58 female respondents regarding their first year mentor association. In contrast 21 males and 34 females registered 68 disadvantages.

Corresponding figures for pre-teaching mentor associations revealed that 7 males and 13 females announced 100 advantages and 22 disadvantages.

The females needed 28 categories to fit in their 43 first year mentor disadvantages whereas the males needed 15 for their 25 disadvantages. The results for pre-teaching mentor associations were well balanced across the sexes.

Discussion. Most advantages claimed were not unusual but there were some exceptions. First year teaching mentors gave a decided advantage to males for items 3 and 12 and to females for items 8, 10 and 16. Ideally, female frequencies should have been about 1.5 times male frequencies. For item 3, *guidance*, male frequency was 8 and female frequency was 3. For item 12, *personal growth*, male frequency was 4 and female frequency 3. For item 8, *professional growth* male frequency was 9 and female frequency was 17. For items 10 and 16, *confidence* and *encouragement*, the male frequencies were 2 and 1; the corresponding female frequencies were 12 and 5. Overall, there was a reasonably fair distribution to males and females in the study of the advantages and disadvantages derived from the first year teaching mentor association. As the male and female subgroups enjoyed overall success in their first year of teaching mentor associations then success could be claimed.

Thus, the perceptions of the male and female subgroups were found regarding the success of their mentor associations in their first teaching year.

E. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations, Sex Differences

To seek the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

Findings. The respondents were asked their opinion regarding the advantage to a beginning teacher of having a mentor. They were asked to circle one number on a scale from 0 to 4 where 0 denoted **No use** and 4 denoted **Great use**. The male subgroup had a mean of 3.15 and the female subgroup's mean was 3.32.

Discussion. These mean scores indicated that both sex subgroups had a very high opinion of the usefulness of a mentor association in the first year of teaching. Assuming that what is useful is often desirable, it seemed not unreasonable to conclude that the male and female subgroups found a mentor association for beginning teachers in their first year of teaching, very highly desirable.

Thus, the perceptions of male and female beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching were found.

Age of Participants

There were 51 members in the younger group and their average age was 22.3 years. The older group had 50 members and their average age was 28.3 years.

F. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted, Age Differences

To identify the personnel consulted by beginning teachers in dealing with critical events they fgaced in Alberta secondary schools.

Findings. The personnel consulted were examined in the light of the two age groups. If no difference existed between the two age groups, it would have been expected that there would have been no differences between the frequencies for individual items as both subgroups differed only by one in size.

The younger group approached helpers in 18 of the categories and the older group approached 14. Five of the younger group sought help from their families but none of the older group admitted to involving their families. Both groups chose their first six helpers in exactly the same order. For the first two helpers on the ordered list, the younger group approached fellow teachers 91 times and principals 50 times. The older group approached fellow teachers 64 times and principals 34 times. The number of approaches for the next most frequently consulted helpers were closely matched across each item.

Discussion. Younger and older beginning teachers and interns chose precisely the same six helper categories and ranked them in the same way in terms of frequency of approach. The younger group made half as many approaches again to fellow teachers and principals as did the older group. The younger group consulted more categories of helpers than did the older group. These data could have led to the conclusion that the age difference between the groups did affect to some degree the choices made in selecting helpers to deal with problems encountered by the younger and older groups of beginning teachers and interns in the study.

Thus were identified the personnel consulted by beginning younger and older group teachers in Alberta secondary schools regarding critical events encountered in their first year of teaching.

G. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers, Age Group Differences

To identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the developmental stages of mentoring.

Findings. Table VII.4 has recorded, in descending order of frequency, the eleven most serious problems identified by the total group. The frequencies and rank order for the younger and older groups are shown alongside.

Discussion. The eleven most frequently identified problems as reported by the total sample were also identified by the younger group but not in the same order. The older group chose only eight of the eleven chosen by the total sample. The three items chosen by the older group for their first eleven problems which did not appear in the choice of the total and younger groups were items 18, 43 and 11. These dealt in turn with feedback on performance, preparation and planning and classroom management. The three items chosen by the younger group but not by the older, were items 34, 6 and 21 as can be seen from Table VII.4.

It has been mentioned already that there was great difficulty in creating categories which were discrete and in particular, discipline and classroom management were used as illustrative of the problem. This could have caused the older group to have had discipline and classroom management in their list whereas the younger group did not have classroom management. The same kind of ambiguity could have occurred with time organization and preparation and planning.

Because of obfuscations surrounding the interpretations given to reported problems and those surrounding categories, it would have been imprudent to claim that age groups were influential in the classification of the 264 critical events.

Table VII.4 Eleven Most Frequently Mentioned Problems Listed by Age

Category	Item Number	Total Group Freq. N=86	Rank Order	Younger Group Freq. N=48	Rank Order	Older Group Freq. N=38	Rank Order
Discipline	14	50	1	29	1	21	1
Extra curricular activities	23	14	2	9	2	5	9[1]
Student apathy	31	13	3	6	6[1]	7	3.5[1]
Time organization	10	12	5[1]	5	8.5[1]	7	3.5[1]
Teaching load	24	12	5[1]	5	8.5[1]	7	3.5[1]
Resources	41	12	5[1]	7	3.5[1]	5	9[1]
Inadequate teaching skill	9	11	7	4	10.5[1]	7	3.5[1]
Parents	34	10	8	6	6[1]	4	12
Curriculum	5	9	10[1]	4	10.5[1]	5	9[1]
Evaluation	6	9	10[1]	7	3.5[1]	2	20
Unqualified for teaching assignment	21	9	10[1]	6	6[1]	3	13

[1]Indicates tied rank

On the mentor association scale, the younger group had an average of 3.44 and the older group 3.06. Thus, were the identified events classified in terms of frequency of occurrence and the developmental stage of mentoring elicited on the basis of age groups.

H. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors, Age Group Differences

To identify factors that would encourage the beginning secondary teacher to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege.

Findings. The 581 qualities desired in mentors, which were generated by 99 of the participants of the study, were broken down in terms of the younger and older age groups. The top eleven qualities selected by the total sample were listed in descending order of frequency of occurrence and these frequencies were divided according to the source by age group. Table VII.5 has these data displayed.

Table VII.5 Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by the Whole Group and Age Subgroups

Category	Whole group N=99	Younger Group N=50	Older Group N=49
Willingness to help	40	22	18
Experience	38	19	19
Empathy	37	18	19
Professionalism	28	10	18
Friendliness	26	13	13
Trustworthiness	22	12	10
Good listener	22	11	11
Sense of humour	20	9	11
Knowledgeable	19	11	8
Sound advisor	18	10	8
Concern	18	11	7

Discussion. Table VII.5 has shown how the selection of the eleven most preferred qualities by the total group for mentors was selected on the basis of age groups. Indeed there were differences between the two groups but these differences were so slight that it would have been imprudent to try and attribute them to differences between the age groups.

Thus, were identified factors that would encourage beginning teachers in the younger and older age groups to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege.

I. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations, Age Group Differences

To seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them and to relate these perceptions to various personal and positional variables.

This section was devoted to examining the sixth subproblem in terms of the age group to which the participants belonged.

Findings. There were 262 advantages and 90 disadvantages claimed from pre-teaching and first year teaching associations. The younger group contributed 133 advantages and the older group, 129. Of the 90 disadvantages, 39 were contributed by the younger group and the remaining 51 by the older group.

Discussion. It was sufficient to recognize the majority that advantages acquired from a mentor association had over disadvantages to claim that mentor associations were successful. The advantages gained by the younger and older groups were very nearly equal. The imbalance between the disadvantages experienced, 51 for the older group and 39 for the younger, could have been due to the fewer needs of the older group caused by the average of 6 years extra maturity.

Thus were found the perceptions of teachers in the younger and older age groups of the success of the mentor-protege associations identified by them.

J. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations, Age Group Differences

To seek the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

Findings. Respondents were asked to circle one number on a scale from 0 to 4, where 0 denoted **No use** and 4 denoted **Great use** to indicate how desirable it would be for beginning teachers to have a mentor-protege association in their first teaching year. The mean for the total sample was 3.72, for the younger group 3.75, and for the older group 3.70.

Discussion. All these means are very close and very high. This indicated that the age group was probably not a variable of consequence in assessing the desirability of beginning teachers having a mentor association in their first teaching year.

Thus, the perceptions of the younger and older age groups of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching were found.

Location of Participants

There were 102 participants in the study sample. They taught in more than thirty jurisdictions in Edmonton and up to approximately 80 kilometres from Edmonton. Three designations were used, urban, suburban and rural, to describe school locations. Urban schools were those in the Edmonton Public and Edmonton Separate systems. Suburban schools were those other schools, the head offices of which could be reached by a local telephone call from Edmonton. The remaining schools were classified as rural schools. Using this functional definition, the sample consisted of 36 urban, 34 suburban and 32 rural beginning teachers and interns.

K. Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted, Location Differences

To identify the personnel consulted by beginning teachers in dealing with critical events they faced in Alberta secondary schools.

The 264 critical events have been previously identified. In this section, an examination was made of the personnel approached for help in terms of location of the schools in which the beginning teachers and interns taught.

Findings. There were differences in the categories of the helpers approached by the urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns. Only in rural schools were assistant superintendents approached. Urban staff did not ask for help from pupil personnel directors. Consultants were not consulted by suburban beginning teachers and interns. Librarians were not asked for help in urban schools nor the ATA representatives in suburban schools. Students' parents were not asked for assistance in rural areas. Only in suburban schools were trustees asked for help.

Of the 421 approaches made to helpers for assistance, 154 were generated by urban respondents, 124 by suburban respondents and the remaining 143 from rural respondents. Fellow teachers, principal, department head, vice principal, family and friend all had high frequencies and, in the main, the remaining frequencies fell far behind these five just mentioned. Thus, were identified critical events found by beginning secondary teachers in different locations in Alberta secondary schools and the personnel consulted in dealing with them.

Discussion. Some categories were not mentioned by some location subgroups. This was possibly due to the title used in some areas not being used in others. After fifth or sixth position, the frequencies fell away very sharply. There was much agreement in the items chosen

to fill the first five places but not in the order in which they were selected. The items with the top five frequencies from each location follow:

Urban:	1(54)	12(33)	2(25)	7(10)	9(7)
Suburban:	1(52)	2(17)	10(13)	9(12)	12(12)
Rural:	1(49)	2(42)	7(11)	12(10)	10(9)

Fellow teachers had about equal appeal in the three locations but principals in rural schools were approached much more often than their fellow principals in urban and suburban secondary schools. This was probably due to the smaller size of country secondary schools and principals would have tended to interact more with their teaching staff. Probably for the same reason, rural beginning teachers and interns consulted counsellors more than would have been expected had no differences been due to the differences in location. Urban and suburban neophyte teachers made much more use of their friends as sources of assistance than did their rural counterparts. Urban teachers made great use of department heads in seeking assistance for their problems. This, too, could have been a consequence of school size as bigger schools would have had more departments and thus more department heads.

With a great deal of caution, it was concluded that it was possible that differences in location might have had a detectable effect on the personnel who were sought out by beginning teachers and interns for help.

Thus, were identified in terms of location, the critical events found by beginning secondary teachers in Alberta secondary schools and the personnel consulted in dealing with them.

L. Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers, Location Differences

To identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the

developmental stages of mentoring.

The classification of the 264 critical events and their frequency of occurrence have already been described. The purpose of this section is to discover the locational sources of these 264 critical events and the developmental stages of mentoring in urban, suburban and rural schools.

Findings. Of the 264 problems which had been categorized, urban participants supplied 89, suburban 90, and rural respondents 85. However, this near equality of contribution to the total by the three groups was not reflected in some of the categories.

In the interests of efficiency, in this paragraph, frequency counts will be given in the order urban, suburban and rural.

Category 5: Curriculum, frequencies 3, 1 and 5;
Category 9: Inadequate teaching skills, frequencies 6, 4 and 1;
Category 10: Time organization, frequencies 2, 7 and 3;
Category 11: Classroom organization, frequencies 4, 2 and 0;

Category 12: Inheriting an established routine, frequencies 0, 4 and 1;
Category 17: Insecurity, frequencies 3, 0 and 1;
Category 18: Feedback on performance, frequencies 1, 5 and 0;
Category 19: Being evaluated, frequencies 0, 1 and 6;

Category 21: Unqualified for teaching assignment, frequencies 5, 0 and 4;
Category 22: Oversized classes, frequencies 3, 0 and 3;
Category 31: Student apathy, frequencies 5, 2 and 6
Category 34: Conflict with superordinates, frequencies 5, 1 and 4;
Category 41: Resources, frequencies 1, 5 and 6.

Discussion. If judgement had been made purely on a numerical basis, it would have been difficult to claim that the locations of the schools made any difference to problems encountered by beginning teachers and interns. If location had had no bearing on the frequency of contributions made by urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns, it would have been reasonable to expect close counts from the three locations on category frequencies. This was not the case. Suburban teachers appeared to have had fewer problems with insecurity and curriculum than their urban and rural colleagues. It seemed that rural beginning teachers

and interns rated their teaching skills higher than the other beginning teachers and interns in the study. Possibly this was due to evaluation policies in rural areas. Urban and rural teachers had concerns regarding oversized classes and having to teach subjects for which they were not qualified. This did not seem to be a problem in the suburbs. Time organization, inheriting an already established class routine and getting feedback on performance seemed to have been greater problems in suburban schools than in urban and rural schools for beginning teachers and interns. Classroom organization appeared to create no problems in rural schools.

Whether precise explanations could be attributed to each of these differences in turn was not at issue here. The concern of this study was to see if positional variables affected the categorization of the identified 264 critical events. The data have suggested that this was indeed the case, as many categories have shown marked imbalances in the contributions from participants from the urban, suburban and rural areas.

Respondents were asked to rate the level of development of their first year teaching mentor association on a scale from 0 to 4 where 0 denoted **Did not exist** to 4 which denoted **Was fully operational.** Urban participants had an average of 3.08 suburban respondents had an average of 3.62 and rural participants recorded an average of 3.06.

All three means indicated that the development of mentor associations had reached an advanced level but it is of interest to see that the mean for suburban beginning teachers and interns exceeded the means for both the other groups by more than 0.50. Perhaps this advanced level of mentor association is linked to the reported lack of problems by suburban beginning teachers and interns regarding insecurity, teaching subjects for which they were not qualified and oversized classes.

Thus were the events identified and classified in terms of frequency of occurrence according to location, and the developmental stages of mentoring elicited.

M. Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors, Location Differences

To identify factors that would encourage the beginning secondary teacher to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege.

Findings. As before, a comparison was made between the eleven most cited qualities the total group chose as being desirable in a mentor of beginning high school teachers and the contribution made to those items by subgroups, in this case, urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns. This was displayed in Table VII.6.

Table VII.6 Frequencies of Eleven Ranked Qualities Desired in Mentors by Whole Group and Location Subgroups

Category	Item Number	Whole Group N=99	Urban Group N=36	Suburban Group N=32	Rural Group N=31
Willingness to help	25	40	12	14	14
Experience	58	38	16	12	10
Empathy	1	37	10	16	11
Professionalism	54	28	11	10	7
Friendliness	22	26	13	6	7
Trustworthiness	41	22	8	5	9
Good listener	11	22	6	6	10
Sense of humour	31	20	9	8	3
Knowledgeable	19	19	7	6	6
Sound advisor	63	18	5	7	6
Concern	4	18	8	5	5

Discussion. Table VII.6 has shown some interesting differences in the levels of importance of the eleven desired qualities in mentors. Clawson's two necessary components for defining a mentor are seen in the seven mutuality and four comprehensiveness elements. This indicated that beginning teachers and interns were more concerned about the type of person with whom to form a mentor-protege association than the professional expertise of the mentor. As the pattern of mutuality and comprehensiveness elements did not vary much over the three

subgroups, it was concluded that the preference for mentor qualities was not related to the location of the schools in which the beginning teachers taught.

Thus, were the factors identified that would encourage the beginning secondary teacher to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege in terms of location.

N. Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations, Location Differences

To seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them and to relate these perceptions to various personal and positional variables.

Findings. There were 162 advantages claimed by 32 urban, 32 suburban and 30 rural beginning teachers and interns regarding their first year mentor association and 17 urban, 21 suburban and 17 rural beginning teachers and interns registered 68 disadvantages.

Corresponding figures for pre-teaching mentor associations revealed that 22 urban, 19 suburban and 16 rural beginning teachers and interns announced 100 advantages, and 22 disadvantages were reported by 4 urban, 9 suburban and 7 rural beginning teachers and interns.

Discussion. The urban group reported 68 advantages from their first year teaching association, the suburban and rural subgroups claimed 46 and 48 advantages respectively. Thus 42 percent of the reported advantages were experienced by urban beginning teachers and interns. This was a surprise finding in light of the levels attained in mentor associations reported earlier where suburban beginning teachers and interns had a much higher mean score than the rural beginning teachers and interns.

The 68 disadvantages reported concerning mentor associations in the first teaching year were rather evenly split across the three locations, urban 22, suburban 25 and rural 21. Even from a purely arithmetic viewpoint, because the advantages exceed the disadvantages by so

many, it appeared to be realistic to claim that mentor associations had been successful, particularly in urban schools.

Thus, the perceptions of begining secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them in terms of location were found.

O. Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations, Location Differences

To seek the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

Findings. The purpose of this section was to break down the finding of the total sample for the usefulness of having a mentor-protege association in the first teaching year into its component parts in terms of the locations of the beginning teachers and interns.The scale measured from 0 to 4 where 0 denoted **No use** and 4 denoted **Great use**. The mean for the total sample was 3.72. The mean for the urban subgroup was 3.67, for the suburban subgroup, 3.85 and for the rural group, 3.66. Of the 101 responses to this question, 81 chose 4 for their response. The mean score for the urban group was lower than expected as they had previously recorded receiving the most advantages from their mentor associations.

Discussion. The means for the three location subgroups were very high which indicated that the general perception that having a mentor-protege association in the first teaching year was very useful, was not confined to one or two areas, but was recognized by urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns.

Thus, were identified the perceptions of beginning teachers in different locations of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

P. Chapter Summary

This chapter examined the last five subproblems of the study from various personal and positional bases. These bases were sex, age group and location of the participants.

Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted

There were nearly half as many females again as males in this study but this imbalance of numbers was seldom reflected in the frequencies with which personnel were approached for help so it was concluded that the frequencies reported were related to the sex of the respondents.

The younger group made half as many approaches again to personnel for assistance compared with the older group. Further, the younger group approached personnel in more categories than did the older group. It was concluded, then, that to some degree, the choice of personnel consulted was related to the age groups.

The location of the beginning teachers and interns seemed to have influenced the order in which the personnel chosen were consulted. The five most frequently chosen in each of the three areas, urban, suburban and rural, had four choices in common but only total agreement for the first position. Over the next eight places there were no elements which occurred in all three locations.

Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers

Males and females did not appear to differ in their perceptions of the problemsthey faced in their first teaching year. The measure of the perceptions of male and female participants in the study regarding their rating of the development of mentor associations in their first teaching year showed a small difference using the means calculated from the questionnaire returns. It was concluded that males and females did not differ in matters related to the fourth subproblem.

Of the eleven most frequently encountered problems by the younger group, only eight of them appeared on the corresponding list of the older group and there was a marked difference in the order of appearance. However, because of the possibility of researcher error in allotting reported troubles to categories and also because of overlap in meaning, it was deemed appropriate not to suggest that the differences uncovered in the selection of problems by the younger and older groups were related to the age groups.

There were differences encountered in the problems faced by beginning teachers and interns in their urban, suburban and rural schools, and, where problems faced were common, there were marked imbalances in the frequencies with which they occurred across the three types of location. It seemed reasonable, then, to conclude that the problems faced by beginning teachers and interns in their first teaching year were related to the location of the school.

Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors

There were agreements and disagreements about qualities desired in mentors by males and females. The evidence derived from the analysis of data was not convincing enough to conclude that males and females differed in their choice of qualities desired in mentors.

The data regarding the choices of the younger and older groups of qualities that would attract them to mentors did have some differences. These differences were of such low degree that they could not with safety be imputed to the age groups.

When the eleven most frequently chosen qualities which would make a mentor attractive to the whole group were broken down to their geographical source, it appeared that differences were not great when urban, suburban and rural lists were compared. This led to the conclusion that the importance attached to a quality which would encourage beginning teachers and interns to regard helper-beginning teacher associations as mentor-protege associations was not related to the location of the school.

Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations

After analyzing the data, it was concluded that the success of mentoring associations in the first year of teaching was not related to the sex of the beginning teachers and interns.

The data examined led to the conclusion that age group had not influenced the success of mentor associations in the first year of teaching. A similar finding was attached to urban, suburban and rural schools.

Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations

No matter how the participants were grouped, male and female, younger and older, urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns, the finding that a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching was desirable was unanimous.

Chapter VIII

INTERVIEWS

Data for the study were collected by questionnaire and by interview. This section of the dissertation was included to describe the preparations for a series of interviews and the findings derived from them.

A. Purpose

The interviews had five purposes:

1. To enlarge upon critical events already identified by the interviewees;
2. To discuss briefly qualities that the interviewees believed would be to the advantage of beginning teachers if possessed by mentors;
3. To outline the advantages and disadvantages interviewees had experienced as a result of their mentor associations in their first teaching year;
4. To have interviewees comment upon their attitude to mentor associations in their first teaching year and in the first teaching year of new teachers in general; and
5. To investigate further whether new teachers should have a mentor in their first teaching year.

B. Sample

There were 102 participants in the total sample of the study, and from these, 15 were to be chosen for interview. All participants knew about the interview situation at the time they agreed to fill out the questionnaire and how the 15 to be interviewed would be chosen. The first ten interviewees made a purposive sample in which the single criterion for being chosen was

that the returned questionnaire suggested that the respondent had had an unusual entry to teaching. This could have been, for example, the variety of problems encountered, the gravity of a single problem, the uniqueness of an event or that the respondent needed to talk to someone who was not perceived as a threat. In this way, the first ten interviewees were chosen.

To help give balance to the picture, the remaining five were chosen from those whose entry to teaching had been, at least, relatively trouble free. They were not randomly selected but were a convenience sample in terms of availability. No attention was paid to teacher type, sex or age. Location in Edmonton was the only consideration after having indicated a happy entry to teaching in their questionnaire returns.

C. Interview Schedule

After consulting a number of theses on the form and content of interview schedules, the draft interview schedule was prepared. Care was taken to ensure that the five purposes of the interviews would be adequately met. By meeting these purposes, it was hoped that confirmation of interpretation of data received by questionnaire would result and that a fuller understanding of the teachers, the circumstances in which the critical events occurred and the events themselves would ensue by using this second technique for interpreting data.

D. Pilot Testing

Three respondents who had not been included in the 15 to be interviewed were selected. All three taught in Edmonton and represented the three teacher groups. Two were female, one a second year teacher and the other an intern; the third was male and a first year teacher.

There were no objections or apprehensions generated by the proposed interview schedule. One member of the pilot test thought that the procedure which involved giving a copy of the schedule to the interviewee at the start of the interview could be improved upon. The suggestion was that when the proposed interview group was contacted by telephone for permission to have the interview, the potential interviewee could be told that the length of the

interview, which had been determined from the pilot testing, would be from thirty to forty-five minutes and that the schedule would be posted in advance in order to give the potential interviewee time to consider how deeply answers should be given to fit into the usual time frame. This suggestion was gratefully accepted and adopted.

E. Profile of Interviewees

Fourteen members of the study, chosen either by purpose or convenience, were contacted by telephone and arrangements were made regarding the time and place of interview. Only two of those contacted showed any degree of reluctance about participating. At this stage, one interview had already been held because the interviewee had resigned and it was thought that shortly he would not be available as he was considering leaving the province. In retrospect, the value of a well-prepared interview schedule was readily seen.

The ten respondents who were chosen because their questionnaire returns indicated that they had had an interesting induction to teaching were composed of three males and seven females. The three males belonged to the older group as did two of the six females. One male taught in an urban school and the other two in rural schools. One female taught in an urban school, three in the suburbs and the last three in rural schools. Two of the males were in their second year of teaching and the other was an intern. Three females were second year teachers, three were in their first teaching year and the last one was an intern.

The five respondents who were chosen for their convenience and their lack of critical events in their first teaching year were composed of two males and three females. One male was in the younger group, the other in the older. One female was in the younger group and the other two in the older. One male taught in an urban school, the other in a suburban school. Two females taught in urban schools and the last in a suburban school. One male was a second year teacher and the other an intern. One female was a second year teacher and the other two were interns.

The first fourteen interviews were carried out in accordance with the arrangements made by telephone. It was the researcher's custom to telephone the interviewee on the evening before the interview to confirm the appointment. Accordingly, on the eve of the final interview, the confirmatory call was made. The potential interviewee cancelled the appointment because her baby was ill and she would not be at school the next day. However, when she was asked if she would permit a telephone interview, she appeared to be quite delighted and told the researcher she would call back in half an hour. No return call was received that evening. The next day, the researcher made twelve telephone calls from 9 a.m. until 9 p.m. to try to contact interviewee number 15, but it was all in vain. The final interview would have been from the purposive sample of ten. Thus, fourteen interviews were held. Eleven of the interviews were recorded on audio tapes and notes were taken during the other three.

F. First Purpose

To enlarge upon critical events already identified by the interviewees.

All fourteen interviewees were reminded of the critical events they had recorded, if any, in their questionnaires. They were invited to elaborate on the rather bald statements made in the questionnaire returns. There was one intern who had not supplied a bald statement but who had referred the researcher to a two page hand written statement about her critical events. The invitation to elaborate not only confirmed the researcher's interpretation of the questionnaire information, but it highlighted the events, and in six cases, further relevant and unexpected data were uncovered.

Quotations from some of the interviews will be given and the interviewees will be identified by a code number. If the researcher is quoted, the identifying letter R will be used. In some cases, conversational mannerisms were edited to make the respondents' contributions easier to read, but care was taken to ensure that the intent of the contributors was still fully expressed.

One second year and one first year teacher reported that they had felt like resigning in their first year of teaching. The main causes for this were teaching overload and little or no support from the school. The second year teacher just referred to had had the difficulty of teaching a subject for which he had no qualifications. Another second year teacher had had the same feeling about resigning, again due to teaching overload plus feelings of frustration with the education system and apathetic students, but this teacher intended to resign at the end of this, her second academic year:

> I discovered I had four 80 minute English classes per day for the full semester. I wanted to faint and didn't think I'd be able to handle the workload. I was upset also because this was not told to me at the time I had applied for the job. I would teach from ten to nine in the morning, have my three quarters of an hour lunch and then all afternoon until three thirty, five days a week, for two and a half months and then I would get a spare the last two months (726).

> I will be getting out of the teaching business after next year. I'm either going to take a break or go into another field entirely. I am just very disillusioned and disappointed with what I am seeing in the system itself and with the students. So, I'm either going to be getting my master's and work my way through in my English, although I've been told teaching university can be as much a problem as teaching at thislevel (726).

One second year teacher described some of the realities of her first teaching year:

> By about December the class size was about 41, 42 of grade 8 students. I just didn't know how to deal with the discipline as there were a few real trouble makers in the class. I found that after I had taught the class, I was really tired and frustrated, even wondering whether or not teaching was for me. In terms of approaching people, ... your principal, you don't like to approach him. He's the person who has a lot to do with hiring you and you don't want to show that you are having a lot of difficulties (581).

A second year physical education teacher had these recollections of the first teaching year:

> Coming out of university I knew I would do some coaching. I had no comprehension of the load of coaching nor of the amount of time I was going to require, especially when you consider that during the day you are doing your teaching and later your coaching. When you go home you realize you still have to prepare for the next day (103).

Another physical education intern teacher found her teaching load difficult due to class size and lack of equipment:

> Going into an internship, I thought they might break me in a little differently. All of a sudden I was thrown into this class of 38 students, with a lack of equipment. There was only one gymnasium. I didn't know where to turn (333).

The next quotation is from a second year teacher who did not have any academic background for the subjects he taught in his first teaching year: "I had a lot of enthusiasm and I said ... you can give me anything and I can handle it, but I did find the load particularly heavy" (270). Two other members of the interview sample, both interns, had actually resigned, one for philosophical reasons regarding how children should be taught and because he, too, was teaching a subject for which he had no qualifications, and the other, because she felt that in her situation, she was in danger of losing her love of teaching. At the interview she said:

> When I handed in my resignation, they said that they would change the way they were handling the internship if I would stay, but I felt it was too late for that. The reason I resigned was not because of the way I was being treated, I could handle that, but because I was feeling turned off from the teaching profession. I didn't want that because I enjoy the kids and I enjoy teaching. I didn't want to get turned off and leave it (933).

The last intern felt aggrieved because the tests that she had set and which had been approved by her supervising teacher, were remarked by the supervisor. She also had been interrupted by her supervising teacher while she had been teaching and comments had been made to the students in her presence about what she had been teaching and then she was permitted to resume. The intern did not believe that the students regarded her as a teacher. She explained the role ambiguity this way:

> They knew I was a teacher but they didn't know how to handle the role of the internship. They didn't know how much work I did. In essence I had all the work. I had the load, and yet sometimes I didn't feel I had the authority. I felt like a student teacher with extra work (933).

Another intern who acknowledged teaching overload was concerned too about who should rate the students' progress. This intern taught without supervision and he felt that he was in a better position to rate the students than the supervisor who never saw the lessons.

In addition to those members of the interview sample whose difficulties with teaching overload have been reported, there were two more second year teachers, two first year teachers and two interns who also reported teaching overload as a problem. One of the first year teachers just mentioned was the only teacher in a secondary school department. Not surprisingly, she taught in a high degree of isolation as did one second year and two first year

teachers. With regard to teaching overload, four participants mentioned that they felt that if they had not accepted the overload, their employment would not have been continued the following year. One second year teacher was asked by the researcher if she had felt pressure to do extra work for the school. She responded: "No, they have implied it. They have said, I've even had it said to me, 'You would not be teaching here if you were not doing these things.' It was expected even though it's not in our contract" (103).

An intern who had questioned the propriety of the treatment she was receiving answered the following question:

> Do you think you have jeopardized your position? (R).
>
> In all honesty, yes I do, because Mr X [Superintendent] has told me right to my face that he doesn't think I should be teaching . . . but as for next year, I really don't know whether or not they will ask me back (849).

Including those already recorded, there were eight reports of beginning teachers and interns receiving little or no help from their schools. This was a surprising finding as the size of the interview sample was only fourteen. The questionnaire returns had not indicated this degree of severity with this problem. Four quotations have been included, one from a second year teacher, and two from first year teachers. These three teachers reported lack of cooperation from their colleagues. The last quotation was from a first year teacher who had reported no troubles during his induction period: "Last year, my first year, the staff was very unapproachable" (581).

> The attitude that they had, and this is probably why I couldn't find a mentor in the school, was that you're just an intern and I had them say that to me several times. 'You are just an intern,' and they were people I considered my colleagues. I was doing exactly the same job as they were doing and they were saying that you were just an intern. With that attitude, how could I find anybody there to act as my mentor? (849).
>
> No, I don't feel that there was very much support in the school, so I got the view - I still get this view - that if you become a teacher and you're teaching, you are expected to know from day one how everything runs and how to organize it. I don't think there's a great deal of support between senior teachers or veteran teachers for one another. It's a very isolated sort of job. We're all here together but there's not a heck of a lot of support in what we do (103).

"Teachers as a group, within a group of ten of them, there are going to be eight or nine that

want to help (587).

In addition to the one case of frustration mentioned earlier, four other beginning teachers and interns mentioned their frustrations. Examples of three types of frustration have been included. They had their origins in the system, lack of rapport with the students and lack of student progress when compared with the work put in by the teacher: "The system is enough to frustrate a lot of new teachers."

And

"I don't think the frustration is worth it any more, I just don't" (726).

"I wasn't doing what I wanted to do with the students. I wasn't achieving in the class any kind of rapport with the students. I felt frustrated, very frustrated" (302).

> I was putting a lot of work into it. For the first time in my life I was putting a lot of work into it and yet I was not really noticing the results that you would expect. If you try so hard you would expect a certain result. Unfortunately, at that stage, I found I put a lot of work in but, my inexperience, and not really knowing what to do affected the results. I don't blame this on anybody (720).

Four interns reported that they taught without supervision. In two cases the nominal supervisor was the principal. In one of these cases, the intern claimed that from her first day in the school, she was a first year teacher in all respects except for salary and recognition of service. Her principal, she reported, insisted on his name appearing whenever the name of the class teacher was required. When the intern asked why this must be so, the reported reply was that it must appear that the principal was the class teacher. When the intern sought clarification from an assistant superintendent as to who her supervisor was, she reported his reply as follows: "Well, I'm your supervisor. If you ever have a problem, here's my phone number, call me - and that's not the way the supervision is meant to be in the guidelines of the internship" (849).

This was not typical of the way interns were treated.

Thus were the already identified critical events enlarged upon by the beginning teachers and interns.

G. Second Purpose

To discuss, briefly, qualities that the interviewees believed would be to the advantage of beginning teachers if possessed by mentors.

Interviewees were asked in the questionnaire for ten qualities they thought mentors ought to have if beginning teachers and interns were to derive maximum benefit. At the interview, they were asked, if without deep thought, there were additional desirable mentor qualities that had come to mind. This generated 39 categories. Two categories had the top frequency of 5, *empathy* and *good listener*. Six categories had a frequency of 4, *experience, concern, approachable, liked by students, professionalism* and *trustworthy*. This second purpose confirmed the findings from the questionnaires. Thus were discussed the qualities that the interviewees believed to be to the advantage of beginning teachers if possessed by mentors.

H. Third Purpose

To outline the advantages and disadvantages interviewees had experienced as a result of mentor associations in their first teaching year.

Probably due to lack of expertise on the part of the interviewer, there was no record in five of the interviews about the degree to which mentors filled the needs of the beginning teachers and interns. In one other case, needs were not fully met and in the remaining eight cases, it was reported that the help sought was obtained.

Five interviewees reported negative findings. One felt guilty about making so many demands on the mentor; three others reported the unavailability of the mentor at times; another felt she was becoming too subjective in her dealing with her mentor, for example, she would not complain in case she hurt the mentor's feelings; the last, as already reported, had philosophical differences which led to his resigning his internship. One comment about unavailability has been included: "Possibly if she was in the school as a teacher herself or in a higher position, maybe she could have helped me more by making either the superintendent or

the principal aware of problems encountered by beginning teachers, because it wasn't just me" (581).

There was overwhelming support from the interviewees about the advantages they had derived from their mentor associations. In comparison, the disdavantages carried little weight. The unavailability of the mentor was sometimes due to the mentor's place of employment being away from the school of the protege, but even within the same school, unavailability occurred because of the work demands that some mentors had to contend with. This third purpose reflected very faithfully the findings from the questionnaire. Thus were the advantages and disadvantages interviewees had experienced as a result of mentor association in their first year outlined.

I. Fourth Purpose

To have interviewees comment on their attitude to mentor associations in their first teaching year and in the first teaching year of new teachers in general.

Only one interviewee fully supported the idea of formally appointing mentors to schools. The remaining thirteen came out strongly in favour of choice, preferably mutual, on the part of mentor and protege. If mutuality could not be achieved, then choice must be given to the beginning teacher about who the mentor would be. The sex and age of the mentor were of no importance except to one male intern who thought he would not be affected by the age or sex of a mentor but he had not had enough experience on which to make such a judgement.

The interviews brought out an aspect of mentoring that was not covered in the questionnaire. Five interviewees spoke about the preventive role of the mentor, stopping troubles before they started. One of them, an intern, expressed it this way: "They helped me before I got into the problems" (302).

A first year teacher responded to this question: "Did these conversations prevent you from having difficulties?" (R). "Oh, in many ways" (587).

It is interesting to note that both respondents 302 and 587 were selected for interview because they had claimed to have had no problems in their first teaching year.

There were five interviewees who preferred that mentors be in their own subject area. It also was recorded that more than one mentor was desired. For example, a young teacher might find it easier to discuss a deeply personal problem with a mentor remote from the teaching subject yet prefer to seek assistance in professional matters and perhaps personal matters of lighter degree with a mentor who taught the same subject. The purposes might have varied, but those interviewed wanted mentors, as did the study sample.

> I just think it's important to have somebody that you can talk to or deal with because sometimes in your first year the load gets so heavy. It would be so easy to lose track, to get disinterested in teaching or get turned off. If you're somebody who has a lot to offer, that's too bad, because eventually things will get better. But at times, the mountains look [very high] (933).

> They have to be empathetic, and good listeners. They have to be someone who wants to listen to you and is concerned about you. I don't know what it is about the person. It is just like you could see it. It's hard to put into words (581)

Thus did interviewees comment on their attitude to mentor associations in their first year and in the first year of new teachers in general.

J. Fifth Purpose

To investigate further whether new teachers should have a mentor in the first teaching year.

One respondent suggested that the buddy system was more appropriate than a mentor in the early days of the year because help is needed immediately. A mentor-protege association is the outcome of a growth process and in time would replace the buddy system. Apart from this one opinion, all other opinions were highly in favour of beginning teachers and interns having mentors in their first teaching year.

Thus was investigated whether new teachers should have mentors in the first teaching year.

K. Comments on the Interviews

It could be argued that if the purpose of holding interviews were to validate data received from another source, then reason enough exists for holding interviews. The interviews carried out in this study did provide triangulation but much more was gained than corroboration of findings. Statistics and words became alive.

When the statistics generated by the questionnaire returns were examined, the researcher did not anticipate that, from the total sample of 102, two felt like resigning, another would resign at the end of the school year and that two had actually resigned from teaching altogether. This illustrated the inadequacy of statistics to reflect feelings.

Teaching overload may trigger off a general picture of a teacher trying to cope with a heavy burden. However, when one can sit and look at a teacher who is explaining the particular situation of overload and the emotional impact that the recollection has on the teacher, a much fuller appreciation of teaching overload is gained. Four of the interviewees reported that either explicitly or implicitly they were told that their employment depended on their acceptance of this unfair situation. One intern reported that, when she sought clarification of her role because she was teaching full time unsupervised, she was assured that the more experience she got, the better it would be for her. On checking further at a higher level, she was told that the situation was entirely wrong and it would have to be rectified. The superintendent's attitude is now reported as unfriendly and the principal has not spoken to her since her situation became known out of school. She fears very much for her job.

One interviewee, when asked what qualities had attracted her to her mentor, replied that her mentor was 'a superbly nice person.' How can a researcher categorize that comment and at the same time convey the smile, the look in the eye and the warmth in the voice when the comment was made. Again, the same intern made a non-categorizeable comment, yet a comment throbbing with joy, excitement and gratitude: 'Internship with a mentor who wants you is a marvellous experience.' How many qualities, and what were they, did this mentor have? They were known to the protege and conveyed to the researcher without ever being

mentioned. Such is the warmth that interviews add to cold data.

Mentors, on the whole, were highly prized by the beginning teachers and interns. There were no surprises from the interviewees regarding how well mentors were able to meet the needs of beginning teachers in want of help bar one, and that was the preventive function of mentors being mentioned by the five interviewees.

Among the four negative aspects mentioned regarding their first year mentor associations, three interviewees mentioned the unavailability of the mentor. When this perceived defect was encountered in the questionnaire, it did not suggest wistfulness to the researcher then, but, as a result of the interviews, unavailability and wistfulness are forever linked.

The interviewees supported, almost unanimously, the idea that all beginning teachers and interns should have a mentor in the first year of teaching. Besides supporting this last idea, one second year teacher thought it would be an advantage if school boards provided a centre, where consultants 'not politically related to the school' could supply help and guidance for teachers in a completely non-threatening and confidential way.

Five interviewees spoke about isolation. The causes varied from being the only teacher in the school who taught the subject to a generation gap between the beginning teacher and long established colleagues. Two told the researcher of their tears caused by isolation. The tears were not detected in the questionnaire returns.

The interview findings never contradicted the findings from the questionnaires but there were indications of differences in emphasis. For example, the degree to which beginning teachers and interns perceived lack of support in their schools came through much more strongly from the interviews than it did from the questionnaires.

The interviews were time consuming and costly but both time and money were well spent because the statistics of the study, at least in part, were seen from the perspective of the beginning teachers that the data were meant to represent but could only do so in a less adequate way. Questionnaires plus interviews may not reflect a perfect picture but they reflect a clearer

image than do questionnaires alone.

L. Chapter Summary

The major part of the interview sample, N=10, was purposive and the minor part, N=5, was convenient. The purposive sample was drawn from those who had had an unusual entry to teaching and the sex and location of those chosen was not considered in forming the sample. The convenience sample was drawn from those who had had an easy entry to the teaching profession and whose schools were either in or close to Edmonton. Fourteen of the fifteen planned interviews were carried out and of these, eleven interviews were recorded by tape recorder and at the other three, notes were taken. The researcher later made a tape recording from the notes taken. Seven major findings were as follows:

1. Concerns regarding actual, potential and considered resignations;
2. The heavy load borne by beginning and intern teachers became more apparent;
3. Indications of abuses of the internship program were detected, for example, an intern working as a full time teacher without supervision;
4. There were claims from some beginning teachers and interns that coercion in the form of threatening to withhold employment was used to persuade the beginning teachers to take on unusually heavy burdens;
5. The extent to which lack of support from the schools was reported was unexpected;
6. Beginning teachers prefer by far to have mentors who teach the same subjects which the neophytes teach; and
7. Mentors are wanted by beginning teachers and interns.

The reader is reminded that the findings from this chapter were derived, in the main, from a purposive sample. Because of this, no generalizations can be made even to the study sample. This would account for contradictory findings between this chapter and others.

Chapter IX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Problem and Subproblems

The purpose of this study was to seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers regarding the possible advantages and disadvantages of having a mentoring system available to such teachers. This purpose generated the following seven subproblems:

1. To identify potential areas of adjustment difficulties faced by beginning secondary teachers and differences in adjustment difficulties;
2. To identify differences in adjustment difficulties, if any, among categories of respondents based on sex, age group, and location;
3. To identify the personnel consulted by beginning teachers in dealing with critical events they faced in Alberta secondary schools;
4. To identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the developmental stages of mentoring;
5. To identify factors which would encourage the beginning secondary teacher to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege;
6. To seek the perceptions of beginning secondary teachers of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them and to relate these perceptions to various personal and positional variables; and
7. To seek the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching.

The first two subproblems were addressed by examining six adjustment areas faced by beginning teachers and interns in terms of three teacher groups for the first subproblem and in terms of sex, age group and location for the second subproblem. These areas of adjustment which were derived from the literature were:

1. Adjustment to the community;
2. Adjustment to the school system;
3. Adjustment to the school;
4. Adjustment to the classroom;
5. Adjustment to the field of education;
6. Adjustment to the new role.

This chapter contains a summary of the findings related to the seven problem statements as viewed from the variables, teacher group, sex, age group and location pertaining to the participants. Where relevant, findings were linked to the literature reviewed in Chapter II. All of the findings are brought to bear on the resolution of the main problem.

B. Methodology

The study was confined to thirty-five jurisdictions within eighty kilometres of Edmonton. A questionnaire was prepared and 127 of them were hand delivered to urban, suburban and rural schools. Of the 119 questionnaires returned, 102 were usable. This represented a return rate in excess of 90 percent. Approximately a third of the questionnaires were allotted to each of the three types of school location and each group was divided into three teacher categories. These were called second year, first year and intern teachers. The category, second year teachers, were asked to complete the questionnaire by reflecting on their first year of teaching only. First year and intern teachers were asked to complete the questionnaire in the light of their experiences to the day the questionnaire was completed. Data collection was completed by choosing, for interview, a purposive sample of ten beginning teachers and interns who had indicated that their entry to teaching had been difficult or unusual. Five respondents who, on the basis of their questionnaire return, had had a happy entry to teaching were also interviewed.

C. Findings

First and Second Subproblems: Adjustment Difficulties

Responses to the potential problems associated with the six areas of adjustment were used to address the first and second subproblems which concern themselves with adjustment difficulties faced by beginning secondary teachers and differences in these difficulties among categories of respondents. Two types of information were sought from respondents, assistance desired and assistance obtained for each of the adjustment areas identified below.

Adjustment to the community. There was no convincing evidence that second year teachers, first year teachers or interns had any undue difficulty in settling into their new communities in their first year of teaching. Male beginning teachers and interns reported obtaining more help than did females but this was of little consequence as the reported level for assistance desired by all subgroups was low. Further, the age group to which participants belonged did not seem to have an influence on the neophytes' settling into their new surroundings; specifically, there were no differences in the two *adjustment to the community* variables between age groups. However, an influence was detected when the location of participants was examined. Rural beginning teachers and interns sought more assistance and generally received more help in this adjustment area than did urban and suburban beginning teachers and interns.

It appeared, then, that if troubles had been faced by beginning teachers and interns in settling into their new communities, then most of them were encountered by those who started their teaching career in rural schools, and even here, troubles were not great.

The findings of this study then are at variance with the predictions of Eye and Lane (1956), Castetter (1976), Neagley and Evans (1980) and Rebore (1982) who suggested that difficulties awaited new teachers in adjusting to their communities.

Adjustment to the school system. Beginning teachers and interns as a group received much less assistance than they had hoped for in adjusting to their school systems. Most of the difficulties encountered in adjusting to the school system were encountered by the second and first year teachers.

Overall, males sought slightly more help than females and obtained more for this adjustment area. It thus appeared that the female beginning teachers and female interns encountered more difficulty in adjusting to the school system.

On the basis of the analysis of data, it would have been imprudent to suggest that the age group to which a participant belonged was related to the problems faced by beginning teachers and interns in adjusting to the school system. Differences betweeen the older and younger teachers and interns for help desired and help obtained were quite small.

In the main, the problems faced by beginning teachers and interns in adjusting to the school system seemed to be independent of the location of the school taught in. Thus, in general, the neophyte teachers in all three areas, urban, suburban and rural, had to rely on more of their own resources than they had hoped in adjusting to their school systems and it could not be claimed that problems encountered were dependent on school location.

Castetter (1976), Neagley and Evans (1980) and Rebore (1982) predicted that adjusting to their new school systems could be a source of difficulty for beginning teachers. The findings from this study have perhaps suggested a refinement of the predictions from the literature. The analysis of data from the study have confirmed that, in adjusting to their school systems, neophytes encountered difficulties but, in terms of this study, interns, compared to the other two categories of beginning teachers, had a disproportionately light burden to bear in this regard while females, compared with males, had a disproportionately high one.

Adjustment to the school. There were two items for interns for whom the difference between the means for help wanted and received were statistically significant. Second and first year teachers shared six such items and these six items included the two already mentioned

concerning interns.

Thus, second and first year teachers were similar in relation to this adjustment area and the two teacher groups combined differed from the interns. Noteworthy, perhaps, is that in this adjustment area more help was given than sought for two of the ten items for second and first year teachers and for five items in relation to the interns. Overall, it was concluded that membership in a teacher subgroup was related to the perceptions beginning teachers and interns had of the problems they encountered in adjusting to their schools.

There was an overall similarity between the perceptions of males and females for the degree of assistance desired and for help obtained in the ten items of this adjustment area. The differences between assistance desired and obtained were small. It was not found possible to attribute any differences to the sex of the participants with sufficient confidence. Similarly, it was not thought that the evidence was sufficient to declare that age group membership affected the degree of difficulty which the beginning teachers and interns perceived in adjusting to the school. And lastly, when the urban and suburban schools were compared, although differences were detected, it could not be confidently claimed that these differences were due to differences in location. The rural group, although resembling the urban and suburban groups overall, had a variety of problems, some of which it held alone and others it shared with one or both of the urban and suburban groups, but as these differences were minor, it was concluded that the location of schools had probably no influence on the types of adjustment to school problems faced by beginning teachers and interns and the gravity with which these problems were perceived.

No matter the perspective from which the adjustment to the school was viewed, of the ten adjustment items in this adjustment area, the desire for assistance in forming a link with an experienced teacher and the learning of school routines was very apparent.

This conclusion was not at variance with the thinking of Eye and Lane (1956), Harris (1975), Castetter (1976), Neagley and Evans (1980) and Rebore (1982) as beginning teachers and interns did indeed encounter difficulties in their adjustment to the school. A difference of

specificity had occurred in the findings of this study because it appeared that the location of the school had no influence on the type or degree of the adjustment to school problems encountered by the beginning teachers and interns but that differences were more likely to be found in the different teacher groups within the school, in particular with intern teachers.

Adjustment to the classroom. For all seventeen items in this adjustment area the means for help wanted by the total sample exceeded the means for help obtained and for sixteen of the items the differences were statistically significant. In matters pertaining to discipline, first year teachers appeared to have had the greatest concerns and in matters pertaining to teaching load, interns seemed to have had the fewest concerns. In dealing with problems related to class organization, it was concluded that interns seemed to have had few concerns.

There was much support in the findings of this study for the contention in the literature that beginning teachers experience great difficulty with discipline and teaching load. However, this study has suggested that female beginning teachers and interns had a higher need for assistance with discipline than did the males. Further, this study has shown that males and females in their first teaching year did not have the same perceptions regarding the nature and quality of what constituted problems in adjusting to the classroom, these differences were large in number and were statistically significant so it was concluded that males and females differed in problems related to their adjustment to the classroom.

Overall, the younger and older groups sought the same amount of help and although there were different perceptions between the two age groups of the degree of difficulty these problems presented, it was concluded that the age group to which the respondents belonged was not related to their adjustment to the classroom.

Of the seventeen items in this adjustment area, there were statistically significant differences between the means for help desired and obtained for nine of them for urban respondents, for five of them for suburban respondents and eleven of them for rural respondents. An inspection of the seventeen items showed that respondents from the three

geographical areas, namely urban, suburban and rural, rated them very differently. This lack of consistency led to the conclusion that the location of a school was possibly related to the adjustment of beginning teachers and interns to the classroom.

Adjustment to the field of education. For three of the six items in this adjustment area, the total sample obtained more help than was desired. Overall, the group received almost all the help it sought. When this outcome was examined in terms of teacher groups, it was found that second year teachers reported receiving excess help during their novice year for two items, first year teachers for one item and interns for five. Further, in a second item, first year teachers reported the same mean for help desired and help obtained. The Scheffe procedure has disclosed that first year teachers had a significantly higher desire for help than did the interns for items 2, 3 and 5. It was concluded that these differences were related to the teacher group the respondents belonged to.

About the only distinguishing feature between the experiences of males and females in this adjustment area concerned help received. Males obtained more help than they sought for four items and females for only one. This evidence on its own was not regarded as being sufficient to conclude that difficulties associated with the adjustment to the field of education were related to the sex of the participants. Similar findings appeared when the data regarding age groups were examined. The younger group received more help than sought for three items and the older group had the same experience for one item. This was not deemed to be strong enough evidence to conclude that the age group to which respondents belonged was related to difficulties encountered in adjusting to the field of education.

When the data regarding problems encountered in the adjustment to the field of education were inspected in terms of the locations of the schools in which the beginning teachers and interns taught in their first teaching year, there was little or no consistency in the perceived order of help needed for the six items. Most noteworthy, perhaps, was the finding that urban and suburban teachers received more help than they sought for four of the six items

in the adjustment area and rural teachers achieved this result for two items. There was one case of statistically significant differences in the means fir help desired and help obtained. This was for the urban group for item 3. The Scheffe procedure detected a statistically significant difference between the urban and suburban groups for help wanted for item 1, the urban group having the higher mean. Because of this, and despite the overall closeness of the three means for help wanted, it was concluded that the location of a school might be related to problems in the adjustment to the field of education.

Eye and Lane (1956), Castetter (1976), Neagley and Evans (1980) and Rebore (1982) have written on problems to be faced by neophyte teachers which in this study were classified as problems in adjusting to the field of education. The present study has supported their contentions that such problems existed but the findings of the study have indicated that beginning teachers and interns' problems in adjusting to the field of education were more likely to be met by beginning teachers and interns in rural rather than in urban or suburban schools.

Adjustment to the new role. First year teachers had differences which were statistically significant for items 4, 5, 6 and 8 between the means for help wanted and help received. These dealt with psychological problems such as frustration, inadequacy and failure. More assistance was received than sought by second year teachers for items 3, 6 and 7 and by first year teachers for items 1 and 3. Interns never obtained as much help as they desired in any item for this area of adjustment.

All three groups chose the same four items in the same order for the top four problem areas and there was a closeness in the perceptions of second and first year teachers regarding the degree of assistance they needed during their initial teaching year. However, because of the very much less serious view taken of these problems by the interns and the much more serious view taken by first year teachers, it was concluded that teacher type was related to the adjustment to the new role. For four of the eight items in this adjustment area, there were differences between the means for help desired and obtained by females which were statistically

significant. There were no such significant differences for the males. Also for four of the items, males received more help than they asked for and females qualified in this respect for only one item.

It was concluded that difficulties encountered in adjusting to the new role were related to the sex of the participants.

The younger group's ranking of the importance to them of the eight items in the section varied considerably from the ranking of the older group. The younger group had no items in which the differences between the means for help desired and help obtained which statistically significant. In contrast, this occurred for five items for the older group. The younger group received significantly more help than the older group for five items. The older group sought significantly more help than the younger group for one item. The younger group received more help than they sought for four items in contrast to the older group whose reported needs were never met in this adjustment area. From this examination of means and the great differences in the order of the two lists for help wanted, it was concluded that the age group to which the participants belonged was related to their perceptions of the gravity of the problems encountered in adjusting to the new role.

Although the overall means for help desired were little greater than the overall means for help obtained by the three location groups, there were four differences between the means for help desired and help obtained which were statistically significant. These were items 4 and 8 for the urban group and 5 and 8 for the suburban group. In addition, the Scheffe procedure detected a statistically significant difference between suburban and rural groups for help desired for item 8. It was concluded that difficulties encountered by beginning teachers and interns in adjusting to the new role were related to the location of the schools.

It appeared, then, that school location was related to the adjustment of beginning teachers and interns to the new role.

Third Subproblem: Personnel Consulted

The third subproblem dealt with the identification of the personnel consulted in dealing with critical events encountered by beginning teachers and interns. Analysis of the data associated with this subproblem showed clearly that beginning teachers and interns viewed fellow teachers as the most popular single category of helper by far. This finding had been recorded in the literature (Pataniczek and Isaacson, 1981; Goldhammer, 1980; Rebore, 1982). The literature, however, suggested that fellow teachers were approached rather than superordinates because neophytes regarded superordinates as a threat (Pataniczek and Isaacson, 1981; Rebore, 1982). This study has confirmed the preference for the category, fellow teacher, as the main source of help but it has not confirmed the perception of superordinates as threats to troubled neophytes as the three categories, principal, department head and vice principal were selected as second, third and fourth choices. Although as individual categories, principal, department head and vice principal, fell well below the category, *fellow teacher*, in terms of frequency, collectively they were chosen by second year teachers and interns as often as *fellow teachers*. The number of approaches made by first year teachers to the three superordinate categories collectively, when compared to the number of approaches made to the single category, *fellow teacher* were in the ratio of 3:2. The next two categories preferred by the beginning teachers and interns were family and friends. Other professional colleagues were seldom selected. It appeared, then, that first year teachers differed from second year teachers and interns in their frequency of approach to superordinates.

Male respondents showed almost total fidelity to the choices made by the complete sample regarding categories of personnel approached for assistance. Females, however, showed a far higher preference for principals, family and friends than did males. These differences were so noticeable that it was concluded that the sex of the participants was related to the choice of personnel to approach when seeking assistance.

The younger and older groups identified, in the same order of preference, the same six categories of personnel they approached for help. This qualitative similarity, however, was a

quantitative dissimilarity. The younger group approached fellow teachers and principals more often than did the older group, the ratio being again 3:2. Further, the younger group made use of more categories of personnel than did the older group. It was concluded that it was likely that the age group to which the participants belonged was related to the choice of personnel approached for help and the frequencies of those approaches.

Suburban beginning teachers and interns made fewer approaches to personnel for assistance than would have been expected if location had not been regarded as an influential variable. All three location groups had noticeable differences in their first five preferences. Because of these findings, it was concluded that, with great caution, location might have been related to the choice of personnel approached for assistance.

Fourth Subproblem: Critical Events Confronting Interns and Beginning Teachers

The identified critical events reported by the 96 beginning teachers and interns were categorized and second year teachers, first year teachers and interns were represented in most of them. Although the three teacher types shared the categories, in the main, there were considerable differences in the frequencies reported by the three teacher categories for particular items which led to the conclusion that the frequency of a category of critical events could be related to the teacher type to which a respondents belonged.

The sex of the participants did not seem to have been related to the identification of critical events. Similarly, the age group to which respondents belonged could not confidently be claimed to have been a related factor.

Participants from urban, suburban and rural schools displayed marked differences in the frequencies allotted to certain categories, too many to be ignored. This suggested that location of participants had influenced the gravity with which the categories of difficulties were perceived.

To assess the developmental stage of mentoring, respondents were asked to circle a number from 0 to 4 on a Likert scale where 0 meant **Did not exist** and 4 meant **Was fully**

operational. The average for the total group was 3.25 and all subgroups had averages close to this figure. Therefore, no matter whether the total group or any subgroup was used, the developmental stage of mentoring had reached a high level.

As the range of the means over the three teacher groups, two sex groups, two age groups and three location groups was small, it was concluded that the developmental stage of mentoring in the first year of teaching was not related to the subgroups of which the participants were members.

Fifth Subproblem: Identification of Mentor-Protege Factors

The qualities most frequently chosen by the teacher type groups as being qualities desirable in mentors were very similar to those chosen by the total group but the rankings allotted to these qualities varied greatly across the total group and the three subgroups. Among these qualities were experience, empathy and professionalism.

Males and females showed little difference in the qualities chosen and in their order of preference. It was concluded that the sex of the respondent was not related to the perception of the importance of the qualities desired in mentors. The age group to which the respondents belonged, and their location did not appear to be related to the choice of mentor qualities.

Sixth Subproblem: Perceptions of Success of Mentor-Protege Associations

The overall result of 162 advantages, for example, induction support and guidance, against 68 disadvantages, such as the unavailability of the mentor, which were reported concerning first teaching year mentor associations had allowed the conclusion that the mentor associations were successful. When the overall results were examined from the perspective of the ten subgroups, the outcomes were not unexpected except, possibly, for disproportionate recognition of advantages derived by male and female participants.

Seventh Subproblem: Desirability of Mentor Associations

The answer to the seventh subproblem was found by asking the participants to mark on a scale which went from 0 to 4 where 0 meant **No use** and 4 meant **Great use** to indicate their assessment of the desirability of having a mentor association in the first teaching year. As all means were in excess of three, it was concluded that beginning teachers and interns viewed having a mentor in the first teaching year as greatly to be desired.

D. Discussion

The interns in this study were very well protected from the full impact that induction to teaching normally has on beginning teachers. Their reported experiences after three months or so of teaching differed noticeably from those of their first year teacher colleagues and to the recollections of first year experiences by second year teachers. Whether the level of protection afforded the interns will better prepare them for their first full professional year or whether they have been inculcated with unrealistic expectations of their skills still has to be seen. Where differences were identified and it was concluded that these differences were related to the sex of the participants, invariably the preferred outcome went to the males, that is, if there was an advantage in a situation, it was enjoyed by the males and if there was a disadvantage it was associated with the females.

One of the findings of this study was that female beginning teachers sought more assistance and received less than did male beginning teachers. This finding ensued from an examination of means for assistance desired and obtained, being thus the outcome of a rule for the analysis of data which might in fact be true. However, differences found might have been more imaginary than real. Social norms allow females to express their feelings more openly than they do for males. Possibly, then, males and females responded to questions in a way which satisfied social expectations instead of the true situation which would obscure the possible existence of a state of equality between the male and female participants.

The 102 participants were divided into two age groups. Those aged 23 and under were called the younger group, and the older group were those aged 24 and over. In order to see whether any differences detected between the younger and older groups could be highlighted, a slight extension was made to the study by creating two subgroups. Those aged 22 and under numbered 28 and were referred to as the lower younger group. Those aged 27 and over numbered 29 and were referred to as the upper older group. The means for the degrees of help wanted and obtained for each of these subgroups were examined for the six areas of adjustment used to answer the first and second subproblems which were concerned with adjustment difficulties based on teacher type and then on sex, age group and location of the respondents.

For four of the areas of adjustment, the means for help wanted by the lower younger group exceeded the means for help wanted by the younger group, but the differences were small. For all six areas of adjustment, the means for help wanted by the upper older group were less than the means for help wanted by the older group. Again the differences were small. Nevertheless, it appeared that the desire for help was greatest at Levinson's early adult transition period. In general, there were few differences found between the younger and older age groups. The most noticeable differences occurred in the adjustment to the new role in which the younger group were assisted more than were the older group.

Differences related to location were detected in the second, third and fourth subproblems. Those subproblems dealt with, in turn, the identification of adjustment difficulties by respondents based on sex, age group and location, the identification of personnel consulted in dealing with critical events and the identification of these critical events.

To illustrate location differences in the second subproblem, a comparison of the five areas of greatest difficulty, as perceived by respondents from the three locations, will suffice. Of the five areas of greatest importance reported by urban beginning teachers and interns, three were selected by the suburban respondents and two by rural respondents. Suburban and rural respondents chose three areas in common. Only one area of need was selected by all three location groups. In no case were areas of need which were selected by two or three location

groups in common, given the same rank.

Some of the differences related to location which were concerned with the third subproblem dealt with the frequency with which various types of personnel were approached. Rural teachers approached their principals as often as did the urban and suburban teachers combined. Urban and suburban teachers approached their friends for assistance much more than did rural teachers.

Differences related to location in the fourth subproblem dealt with imbalances in the frequencies accorded individual problems. Problems associated with inadequate teaching skills were given frequencies of 6, 4 and 1 by urban, suburban and rural teachers. In the same order of location, problems related to being evaluated had frequencies of 0, 1 and 6. Why these differences existed was not the issue but it could be conjectured that they were reflections of different life styles. Teachers in rural areas become well known, not only in the country town they teach in, but in much of the surrounding area. Urban teachers need only move to the next suburb in order to become strangers. Further, differences could be due to school size. In general, rural schools are smaller than those in the city and suburbs and school size might be the cause of differences.

The six adjustment areas used in this study were derived from a number of sources in the literature as potential areas of difficulty for beginning teachers and interns. Except for the first adjustment, the adjustment to the community, difficulties were identified and the first and second subproblems were then addressed. This study allowed a finer focus to be placed on where these difficulties might be found to lie more heavily, as the total sample was broken into three teacher groups, sex groups, two age groups and three location groups.

For the third and fourth subproblems it was possible to detect differences quite readily but for the fifth, sixth and seventh subproblems, no differences could be detected.

E. Interviews

Fourteen interviews were carried out and these generated the following seven major findings:

1. There were concerns regarding actual, potential and considered resignations;
2. The heavy load borne by beginning and intern teachers became more apparent;
3. Indications of abuses of the internship program were detected, for example, an intern working as a full time teacher without supervision;
4. There were claims from some beginning teachers and interns that coercion in the form of threatening to withhold employment was used to persuade the beginning teachers to take on unusually heavy burdens;
5. The extent to which lack of support from the schools was reported was unexpected;
6. Beginning teachers preferred by far to have mentors who teach the same subjects which the neophytes teach; and
7. Mentors were wanted by beginning teachers and interns.

Since the sample of respondents chosen for the interviews was a purposive rather than a random or representative sample, these findings should be treated with caution when generalizing to the study sample of 102 respondents or beyond that group. Some of the findings, for example, the second one above concerned with heavy teaching load, the third concerned with abuses of the internship and the sixth concerned with preference for mentors in the same teaching area, were confirmations of the questionnaire responses. Thus, the interviews acted as a form of "triangulation" for several of the findings of the questionnaire study increasing the confidence in these findings. The first listed finding, which concerned actual and potential resignations, in some measure provided new information, in that a larger number of respondents than anticipated from the questionnaire findings had considered resigning from teaching. The fourth finding, concerned with coercion, was to some degree anticipated from the first stage of the study but the extent was not at that time apparent. Similarly, the fifth listed finding on prevalence of non-cooperation was unexpectedly high.

The interviewer approached the interview phase of the study with rather neutral feelings about the benefits that would derive from this phase. In the early stages of the interviews the interviewer became enthusiastic about the task because he saw the great benefits he was gaining from a further understanding of the data in the qualitative sense and of the circumstances in which the events described took place. The two-way communication which was possible during the face-to-face interaction at the time of delivery of the questionnaire seemed to increase the returns beyond what is reasonably expected in such studies. This two-way communication during the interviews allowed the researcher to see as well as hear the frustration, anger and joy felt by different interviewees when describing their experiences. Lest the reader conclude that having personal interaction with respondents always produces more or enriched findings, a contrary example was detected in the questionnaire returns. A respondent's cat was identified as a helper and the Likert scales showed a considerable degree of non-random pattern indicating a spurious return.

Although, as already indicated above, inferring from this limited interview group to the total sample must be done with care, nevertheless it became clear that this phase of data collection, despite the very occasional misleading response, enriched the study.

F. Conclusions

This section has recorded the conclusions drawn in terms of differences uncovered when the data were attributed in turn to teacher type, sex, age group and location of the participants in the study. Where differences were detected, a brief account of the nature of these differences was added.

There were three teacher types:

- Second year teachers reflecting on their first year teaching experiences;
- First year teachers; and
- Interns.

There were, of course, two sexes: male and female.

There were two age groups:

- Younger group aged less than 24; and
- Older group aged 24 and over.

There were three school locations:

- Urban;
- Suburban; and
- Rural.

The first and second subproblems were addressed by examining six areas of adjustment which the literature suggested were potential problem areas for beginning teachers and interns. There were no differences in the adjustment area pertaining to the community that could have been attributed with confidence to any of the personal or positional variables used in the study.

For the second adjustment area, pertaining to the school system, age group and location were not found to be related to any differences but differences were related to teacher type and to the sex of the participants. Second and first year teachers found the adjustment to their school districts more difficult than did interns, and male beginning teachers and interns had less difficulty than did female beginning teachers and interns in this adjustment area.

Differences in the third adjustment area, which was concerned with the school, were detected in the teacher types only. Second and first year teachers reported sufficient variations to allow the conclusion that both teacher groups differed in adjusting to their schools from the interns who had almost all their needs met in this regard.

Castetter (1976:36) has suggested that induction consisted of four areas of adjustment, namely, community, system, position and personal. This study did not find evidence of difficulties in adjusting to the community by beginning teachers and interns but it did uncover difficulties in adjusting to the system and to the position of teacher, thus giving support to Castetter in some respects. However, this study has, perhaps, focused more finely than did Castetter on who had to cope with these difficulties.

Differences of note were found in two subgroup clusters in adjusting to the classroom. The rankings given by the three teacher groups to the seventeen items in this adjustment area varied considerably. Teaching load and discipline were the only two items given high mean

scores by all three teacher groups for help wanted. Second and first year teachers were left with a large measure of unmet need whereas interns received more help than they sought in adjusting to the classroom. The ranking of the seventeen items by the male respondents varied considerably from the ranking by the female respondents. Females sought more help overall than males and received less than did the males. Males ranked discipline first and females ranked it third. The highest concern of the female respondents was teaching load which the males ranked eighth. It was concluded that the sex of the participants in the study affected their adjustment to the classroom. The younger and older groups perceived differently the degrees of assistance they sought for the adjustment to the classroom but these differences were small. Perceptual differences were apparent in the rankting of the seventeen items of the adjustment by the urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns.

With caution, it was concluded that location might have been related to the adjustment to the classroom.

Differences were found for the fifth adjustment area, the adjustment to the field of education, and these were related to the teacher type and location of the respondents.

In adjusting to the new role, the sixth adjustment area, differences were detected from all perspectives. Second year teachers reported receiving more help than did the interns but because interns sought less help, more of their needs were satisfied. Only first year teachers had statistically significant mean differences for help wanted and received. In the main, first year teachers had a higher concern for psychological difficulties than did interns and the second year teachers who were reflecting on their first year experiences.

The help desired by males in adjusting to the new role was obtained but the help given to females was noticeably less than what they wanted. The younger group, like the males above, received the help they sought but the deficit in the help given to the older group was even greater than that of the females mentioned above. Further, the younger group perceived the importance of the items in this adjustment area very differently from the older group. It was concluded that the younger group differed from the older group in adjusting to the new role. It

was also concluded that location was related to the adjustment to the new role because there were differences of note in the ranking given to the items of this adjustment area by urban, suburban and rural beginning teachers and interns.

In this way was the first problem addressed, the identification of potential areas of adjustment difficulties faced by beginning secondary teachers. Similarly, the second subproblem, the identification of differences in adjustment difficulties, if any, among categories of respondents based on sex, age group and location was answered.

The third subproblem was concerned with the identification of personnel to whom beginning teachers and interns went to for help to cope with critical events encountered in the first teaching year. The popularity of different types of personnel varied across the three teacher types, sex, age group and location of respondents although the problems identified were much alike. Examples from different subgroups to show differences in personnel popularity might interest the reader:

- First year teachers made more use of superordinates than did the other two groups;
- Females made more use of family than did males;
- Five members of the younger group made use of family but none of the older group did; and
- Principals of rural schools were approached more often than urban and suburban principals.

The fourth subproblem was to identify critical events faced by beginning secondary teachers and to classify these critical events in terms of frequency of occurrence, the settings in which they occurred and the developmental stages of mentoring. The developmental stage of mentoring was assessed by asking the respondents to circle a number from 0 to 4 on a mentor measuring scale on which 0 represented **Did not exist** and 4 represented **Was fully operational**.

Males and females, as well as the younger and older age groups could not be judged to be different in terms of the fourth subproblem on the basis of their questionnnaire responses. However, there were some noticeable differences in the responses from the teacher groups in ranking items. For example, for item 31 which dealt with student apathy, second year teachers,

recalling their first year experiences, ranked it 14.5, first year teachers ranked it 15, and interns ranked it 2. Concerns regarding lack of academic qualifications were ranked 14.5, 15 and 5 by second year, first year and intern teachers respectively.

To illustrate that interns were not always the deviant group, the rankings for item 9, *inadequate teaching skills*, were 20, 4.5 and 5 respectively by second year, first year and intern teachers.

A similar situation to that found among teacher groups was found in the location groups. To indicate some of these differences in frequencies, the returns for some categories will be listed giving the frequencies in the order urban, suburban and finally rural.

Feedback on performance had frequencies of 1, 5 and 0;

Problems with resources had frequencies of 1, 5 and 6;

Difficulties encountered by lack of academic qualifications had frequencies of 5, 0 and 4; and

Concerns regarding being evaluated had frequencies of 0, 1 and 6.

No matter whether the developmental stage of mentoring was measured in terms of teacher group, sex group, age group or location group, the outcome was a mean score of at least 3 on a scale from 0 to 4.

The fifth subproblem was to identify factors which would encourage beginning secondary teachers to regard a helper-beginning teacher association as one of mentor-protege. This was done by asking the respondents to list qualities which they thought desirable in a mentor. The younger and older age groups were not found to be different. Differences were detected in the teacher groups, the sex groups and the location groups but they were not sufficiently large to allow a conclusion that group membership was related to choice of desired mentor qualities.

For the sixth subproblem, which sought the perceptions of the participants of the success of mentor-protege associations identified by them, no differences were found between the members who composed the teacher type, sex, age or location subgroups.

The seventh subproblem sought the perceptions of various categories of beginning teachers of the desirability of having a mentor-protege association in the first year of teaching. The level of desirability was measured on a scale from 0 to 4. No matter the composition of the group examined, the rating was always greater than 3.5. This was an excellent indicator that the respondents regarded having a mentor in the first year of teaching to be an experience not to be missed.

G. Implications

This study has implications which can be related to practice, to theory and to research.

Practice. Based on the analysis of data, it would appear this study has confirmed that the biggest problems by far faced by beginning teachers and intern teachers are related to discipline. If the induction of beginning teachers to teaching is to be made less traumatic, then anything to assist neophyte teachers with their discipline problems will be helpful. This study has detected several ways in which this might be achieved.

1. Beginning teachers need help and would appreciate offers of help from more experienced colleagues. Beginning teachers need someone to talk to without threat. Principals and teachers may from time to time be insensitive to the apprehensions of beginning teachers. If more senior colleagues could make their new colleagues aware of the existence of goodwill and of the availability of support, their apprehensions would be alleviated.
2. It seems to be almost traditional to allot beginning teachers to the most difficult classes and the worst physical conditions. Beginning teachers would likely benefit if they could spend their energies on teaching and not in trying to maintain order. Perhaps more experienced teachers could be allotted to the more difficult classes and beginning teachers given the more highly motivated classes.
3. Beginning teachers apparently have an excessive workload in many instances. These tyros would seem to need extra time for planning and corrections at least for a time at the

beginning of their first teaching year.

4. Ideally, no teacher should teach in an area for which he or she is inadequately qualified. To ask a beginning teacher to teach under such circumstances seems indefensible if the welfare of the beginning teacher is a concern.
5. To teach an oversized class should at best be an emergency measure undertaken by a competent teacher. To expect any beginning teacher to teach oversized classes as a norm is a quick way to break the spirit of the beginning teacher. It is recommended that all beginning teachers be allotted classes of manageable size.
6. Intern teachers know the role of the intern teacher. It appeared that in too many jurisdictions to be ignored, the role of the intern teacher was not understood or was deliberately not being recognized. It is suggested that a role specification be prepared for the protection of the intern teachers and for the information of superintendents, school principals and teachers. If this were done, and the internship program rigorously supervised, then two major problems of some intern teachers would be eased or would disappear. These are work overload and lack of supervision.
7. This study has investigated the qualities that beginning teachers would like their helpers to have. Principals could assist by choosing helpers, if such is school policy, who have these desired qualities in adequate measure. This would be particularly helpful to intern teachers when supervising teachers are being chosen.
8. Unless it cannot be avoided, beginning teachers should ideally not be appointed to a school unless there is at least one other teacher on staff working in the same subject area.

There are also implications from this study which relate to educational administration. If the findings from this study are accurate, then mentor-protege associations should be encouraged. School principals are in positions of influence and can promote such associations to the advantage of the beginning teacher and of the school itself.

The findings of this study have shown that mentors were first sought among colleagues. The next three categories of personnel preferred to act as mentors were administrators, that is,

principals departmental heads and vice principals. School administrators need to know that beginning teachers regard them as sources of help.

Very few participants in this study admitted to having lacked a mentor association. The respondents were asked to evaluate their mentor associations and their judgement was that having a mentor in the first teaching year is of great benefit. School administrators would be helping themselves as well as the beginning teachers if the induction process included the encouraging of the development of mentor-protege associations.

Theory. Some writers (DeAnda, 1982; Yoder et al., 1982; Kelly, 1984) have defined mentors in terms which excluded a mutual liking between the mentor and the protege. Other writers (Fagan and Walter, 1982; Clawson, 1980; Willis and Dodgson, 1985; Kram, 1985) have emphasized personal regard in some way. This study has shown that beginning and intern teachers place great importance on qualities which bear more directly on personal qualities rather than professional competence. If this finding is supported by further research, it might permit a firmer definition of a mentor.

O'Neil's Developmental Stages of Mentoring showed a progression through six levels of interaction. These were, Stage 1 *Entry*, Stage 2 *Mutual Building of Trust*, Stage 3 *Risk Taking*, Stage 4 *Teaching of Skills*, Stage 5 *Professional Standards* and Stage 6 *Dissolution*.

During each of the fourteen interviews, already alluded to, it became clear that O'Neil's model was understood by the respondents. In all fourteen cases, it was regarded as most appropriate for describing the growth of their mentor associations thus confirming O'Neil's developmental stages of mentoring.

Clawson defined a mentor-protege relationship in terms of mutuality and comprehensiveness and he further said that the degree of such a relationship was a reflection of the mutuality and comprehensiveness present between mentor and protege. Thus, O'Neil can be said to be in agreement with Clawson in that there is the advocacy of some mutuality in the mutual building of trust and the risk taking stages and obviously there is evidence of Clawson's

comprehensiveness in O'Neil's teaching of skills and professional standards.

O'Neil's view of mentoring suggests that sequential stages should be followed, perhaps even must be followed. Clawson's appraisal of mentoring merely suggests that the presence of the components mutuality and comprehensiveness with no sense of order. This study has shown that beginning teachers placed more importance on the personal qualities of the mentor than on the professional qualities. If O'Neil's Stage 3, *Risk Taking*, is the risk of personal disclosure, then it would appear that O'Neil regards the presence of Clawson's mutuality component as a necessary pre-condition for the comprehensiveness component. In this way Clawson's view of mentoring could be seen as a sequential one with mutuality preceding comprehensiveness. This more structured interpretation of Clawson's model of mentoring is supported by the findings of this study.

Research. The carrying out of this study had generated some thoughts concerning related problems which might be researched:

1. A variety of teacher-learner associations exists which is designed to assist the newcomer during the induction period. The mentor-protege association is one of these. Clawson has defined the elements which are essential, in his opinion, for such an association. Would these elements be appropriate in non-mentor associations? What different elements, if any, do other teacher- learner associations have? Would any different elements, identified in such associations benefit mentoring? Thus, it is suggested that the nature of associations might be studied. Some examples of associations which have a type of teacher-learner association are:
   a. Formal mentor-protege association;
   b. Informal mentor-protege association;
   c. Novice master-novice association;
   d. Drill sergeant-recruit association; and
   e. Tradesman-apprentice asociation.

There would seem to be considerable theoretical value in analyzing the nature of these relationships, the elements involved, the advantages and disadvantages of each under different conditions.

2. This study did not address cross sex and same sex mentoring. These areas seem to offer suitable research possibilities.
3. Since the present study focuses entirely on the perceptions of beginning teachers and intern teachers, a study to investigate the perceptions the supervising teachers and the principals had of their intern teachers and of the internship program could be carried out.
4. A comparative study between a group of intern teachers starting their first teaching year as full classroom teachers and a group of first year teachers starting their first year of teaching without experiencing an internship could be undertaken to see if benefits had been derived from the internship year.
5. Perceptions of beginning teachers in special schools, for example, French immersion schools, were not sought. Would differences in culture produce differences in perception? Such a study is suggested.
6. Those beginning teachers and intern teachers who resigned without completing their first year might have valuable information regarding problems faced by beginning teachers and intern teachers. It may be that some of these individuals should indeed seek other careers. Nevertheless, a study of these individuals is recommended to supplement the findings of the present study which surveyed only beginning teachers and interns who had not resigned.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Apfel, Maura and Trudy Karlene Weaver. *Dental Office Procedures.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 221 657, 1981.

Benningfield, Matt and Others (not named). *A Proposal to Establish Demonstration Schools and the Identification, Training and Utilization of Master/Mentor and Master Teacher: A Joint School District and University of Louisville Project.* Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (36th. San Antonio, Tx., Feb. 1 - 4, 1984). ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 241 465, 25p. 1984.

Blumberg, Arthur. *Supervision in Weakly Normed Systems: The Case of the Schools.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 239 381, 15p. April 1983.

Bogdan, Robert C. and Sari Knopp Biklen. Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1982.

Borg, W.R. and M.D. Gall. Educational Research. 4ed. New York:Longman, 1983.

Bova, Breda Murphy and Rebecca R. Phillips. *The Mentoring Relationship as an Educational Experience.* Paper Presented at the National Conference of the Adult Education Association of the USA (San Antonio,Tx.). ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 224 944, 28p. Nov. 1982.

Bova, Breda Murphy and Rebecca R. Phillips. *Mentoring as a Learning Experience for Adults.* Journal of Teacher Education. v35, n3, 16-20, May/June 1984.

Bradley, H.W. and J.F. Eggleston. *An Induction Year Experiment.* Educational Research. v20, n2, 89-98, Feb. 1978.

Brauer, Shirley May. *Chemistry Teacher's Role in Curricular Decision Making.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1981.

Bugher, Wilmer. *Polling Attitudes of Community on Education Manual.* (PACE). Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1980.

Burke, Peter and William Schmidt. *Entry Year Assistance: A Promising Practice.* Action in Teacher Education. v6, n1-2, 71-74, Spring-Summer 1984.

Burke, Ronald J. *The Role of Mentors and Sponsors in Mangement Development.* CTM: The Human Element. v15, n2, 10-13, Dec. 1982.

Busch, Judith W. *Mentoring in Graduate Schools of Education: Mentors' Perceptions.* American Educational Research Journal. v22, n2, 257-265, Summer 1985.

Bush, Robert N. *The Beginning Years of Teaching: A Focus for Collaboration in Teacher Education.* Paper Presented at the World Assembly of the International Council on Education for Teaching (30th. Washington, DC. July 11 - 15, 1983). ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 232 985, 21p., Mar. 1983.

Carter, Holly M. *Making It in Academia. Gurus Can Get You There?* Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York, NY. March 19-23, 1982.) ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 235 758, 19p. 1982.

Castetter, William B. The Personnel Function in Educational Administration. 2ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., 1976.

Clawson, James G. *Mentoring in Managerial Careers.* In C. Brooklyn Dorr (ed). Work, Family and the Career. New York: Praeger, 144-165, 1980.

Cohen, Libby. *Euthenasia of Severely Handicapped Infants: Ethical Issues.* Paper Presented at the Annual Conference of the Association for the Severely Handicapped. (9th. Denver. Co. Nov. 4-6, 1982.) ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 233 534, 17p. Nov. 1982.

Corey, Gerald F. Theory and Practice of Counselling and Psychotherapy, 2ed. Belmont, California: Wadsworth, Inc. 1982.

Cox, Linda. *Adaptive Mentoring.* G/C/T. n33, 54-56, May-June 1984.

Craig, Sister Therese. *Toward an Understanding of the Life-World of the First Year Drama Teacher.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Alberta, 1984.

Cumming, William Kenneth. *Educational Ethics for Survival: Mentor Systems for Future Learning.* Vital Speeches of the Day. vLII, n1, 13-16, October 1985.

Daloz, Laurent A. *Mentors - Teachers who Make a Difference.* Change. v15, n6, 24-27, 1983.

DeAnda, Natividad. *An Executive Training Program.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 233 500, 139p. 1982.

DeAnda, Natividad and Martha Benson Downey. *Women and Minorities' Leadership Program in Educational R & D. Final Report, Dec. 1, 1981 to Nov. 30, 1982.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 233 499, 19p. 1982.

Desbiens, Jean-Paul. *The Supervision of Teaching.* Keynote Address at the CEA Seminar, Montreal, November 1-3, 1978. The Canadian Education Association, 28-40, 1979.

DeWine, Sue and others. *Moving Through the Organization: A Field Study Assessment of the Patron System.* Paper Presented at the Annual General Meeting of the International Communication Association (Dallas, TX. May 26-30, 1983. ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 228 675. 39p. 1983.

Dodgson, Judith. *"Do Women in Education Need Mentors?"* Education Canada. 28-33, Spring 1986.

Edmonds, Edward L. and Frederic Bessai. *First Class, A Survey of Canadian Teachers in Their First Year of Service* . ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 183 526, 89p. 1979.

Elliott, Peggy Gordon and Kristin Holmberg-Wright. *Jewel Tea and Academe.* Action in Teacher Education. v5, n3, 67-72, Fall 1983.

Evenson, Jill S. *Workplace Mentorship. Interviews on Workplace Mentorship: Background, Methodology and Data Analysis.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 246 182, 93p. 1982.

Eye, Glen G. and Willard R. Lane. The New Teacher Comes to School. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956.

Fagan, Michael and Glen Walter. *Mentoring Among Teachers*. Journal of Educational Research. v76, n2, 113-118, Nov.-Dec. 1982.

Frankena, William K. Ethics. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

Gehrke, Nathalie J. and Richard S. Kay. *The Socialization of Beginning Teachers Through Mentor-Protege Relationships*. Journal of Teacher Education. v35, n3, 21-24, May-June 1984.

Gibson, R. Oliver and Herold C. Hunt. The School Personnel Administrator. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1965.

Gitlin, Andrew Rodney, T. Ogawa and Ernest Rose. *Supervision, Reflection and Understanding: A Case for Horizontal Evaluation*. Journal of Teacher Education. v35, n3, 46-52, May-June 1984

Glasser, William. Reality Therapy. New York: Harper and Row, 1965.

Glasser, William. Schools Without Failure. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

Glatthorn, Allan A. *Differentiated Supervision*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 245 401 107p. 1984

Glickman, Carl D. *Developmental Supervision*. Paper Presented at the Annual Conference of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Saint Louis, Missouri, March 7-10, 1981. Sound Cassette, University of Alberta Education Library, 1981.

Goldhammer, Robert, Robert H. Anderson and Robert J. Krajewski. Clinical Supervision: Special Methods for the Supervision of Teachers. 2ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980.

Goodwin, Laura D. and William L. Goodwin. *Statistical Techniques in AERJ Articles, 1979-1983: The Preparation of Graduate Students to Read the Educational Research Literature*. Educational Researcher. v14, n2, 5-11, February 1985.

Gray, William A. and Marilynne E. Gray. *Utilizing Preservice Teachers as Mentors to Provide Enrichment Experiences for Gifted /Talented ESL Pupils*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 229 953, 1982.

Greene Jay E. School Personnel Administration. Philadelphia: Chilton Book Company, 1971.

Griffin, Gary A. and Hobart Huskill (eds). *First Years of Teaching: What Pertinent Issues?* Proceedings of a National Working Conference (Austin, Tx., 1983). ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 240 109, 136p. 1983.

Guba, Egon G. *Criteria for Assessing the Trustworthiness of Naturalistic Inquiries*. ECTJ v29, n2, 75-91, Summer 1981. (ECTJ = Educational Communication and Technology - A Journal of Theory)

Guba, Egon G. and Yvonna S. Lincoln. Effective Evaluation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass,

1982.

Harrington, Diane. *Towards Excellence: Developing High Standards in Youth*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 240 181. 24p. 1983.

Harris, Ben M. Supervisory Behavior in Education. 2ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1975.

Harris, J. John, III, and Others. *STAR 1 (Summer Training Achieves Results) Final Evaluation Report*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 247 361, 80p. 1983.

Horowitz, Myer. *The Continuing Education of Teachers*. Graduation Address, Atlantic Institute of Education, June 10, 1978.

Horowitz, Myer. *Teacher Education and Professional Development*. Keynote Address, Canadian Society for the Study of Education, 12th. Annual Conference. University of Guelph, June 1, 1984.

Houle, Cyril O. Continuing Learning in the Professions. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1980.

Housego, Billie E.J. and Walter B. Boldt. *Critical Incidents in the Supervision of Student Teaching*. The Alberta Journal of Educational Research. vXXXI, n2, 113-124, June 1985.

Houston, W. Robert and B. Dell Felder. *Break Horses, Not Teachers*. Phi Delta Kappan. v63, n7, 457-460, March 1982.

Huffman, Gail and Sarah Leak. *Beginning Teachers' Perceptions of Mentors*. Journal of Teacher Education. vxxxvii. n1, 22-25, January-February 1986.

Hunt, David Marshall and Carol Michael, *Mentorship: A Career Training and Development Tool*. Academy of Management Review. v8, n3, 475-485, 1983.

Immegart, G.L. and J.M. Burroughs. Ethics and the School Administrator. Danville, Illinois: Interstate, 1970.

Irvine, Jacqueline and Cheryl Sullivan. *An Integrated Model for the Training and Supervision of Teachers*. Focus on Learning. v9, n2, 46-52, 1983.

Jankovic, M.M. *Factors Associated with School Principals' Experience of Work-Related Stress*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of Alberta, 1983.

Jick, Todd. *Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: Triangulation in Action*. Administrative Science Quarterly. v24, n4, 602-611, December 1979.

Joyce, Bruce and Beverly Showers. *Improving Inservice Training: The Message of Research*. Educational Leadership. v37, 379-385, February 1980.

Joyce, Bruce and Beverly Showers. *The Coaching of Teaching*. Educational Leadership. v40, n1, 4-11, October 1982.

Kelly, Graham. *On the Way to the Principalship*. The Canadian School Executive. 11-13, Oct. 1984a.

Kelly, Kenneth E. *Initiating a Relationship with a Mentor in Student Affairs*. NASPA Journal. v21, n3, 49-54, Winter 1984b.

Kram, Kathy E. Mentoring at Work: Developmental Relationships in Organizational Life. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co. 1985

Kramer, Marlene. Reality Shock: Why Nurses Leave Nursing. St. Louis: The C.V. Mosby Company, 1974.

Krupp, Judy-Ann. *Mentor and Protege Perceptions of Mentoring Relationships in an Elementary and Secondary School in Connecticut*. Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (68th. New Orleans, La. April 23 - 27, 1984). ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 245 004, 30p. April 1984.

Lambert, Lucien. *Introduction to the Supervision of Teaching*. Report of a CEA Seminar Held at Montreal, November 1-3, 1978. Toronto, Ontario: The Canadian Education Association, 7-8, 1979.

Leithwood, K. and M. Fullan. *Fostering Long-Term Growth in School System Effectiveness*. The Canadian Administrator. v24, n3, 6-13, Dec. 1984.

Levinson, Daniel J. The Seasons of a Man's Life. New York: Ballantyne Books, 1979.

McBee, Mary Louise. *Moral Development: From Direction to Dialogue*. National Association of Student Personnel Administrators. NASPA Journal. v20, n1, 30-35, Summer 1982.

McMillan, Marvin E. and Bruce Shertzer. *APGA Members' Measured Client and Organizational Commitments and Professional Orientation*. Personnel and Guidance Journal. v57, n1, 31-34, Sept. 1978.

Milne, John Leslie. *Problems of First Year Teachers in an Urban School System*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1968.

Moore, Harold E. The Administration of Public School Personnel. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1966.

Moore, Kathryn M. *Women and Minorities' Leaders in Transition: A National Study of Higher Education Administrators*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 225 459. 64p. 1982a.

Moore, Kathryn M. *What to Do Until the Mentor Arrives? Professional Advancement Kit*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 234 296. 14p. 1982b.

Morrow, Kathryn L. Preceptorship in Nursing Staff Development. Rockville, Maryland: Aspen, 1984.

Mosely, Victoria A. and Earl W.Todd. *Mentorships for Gifted Students*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 232 399, 1983.

Neagley, Ross L. and N. Dean Evans. Handbook for Effective Supervision of Instruction, 3ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1980.

Nichols, Irene A. and M. Patricia Golden. *The Middle Way*. Paper Presented at the Annual General Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York, NY. March 19-23, 1982). ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 235 759.

Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, Wa. DC. *A Gifted Model Designed for Gifted Students in a Small, Rural High School. Post Evaluation Design 1981-82.* 83p. 1982.

Pansegrau, Morag. *Teachers' Perspectives on Inservice Education.* Alberta Journal of Education. vol.xxx, n4, 239-258, December 1984.

Pataniczek, Dennis and Nancy Sigler Isaacson. *The Relationship of Socialization and the Concerns of Beginning Secondary Teachers.* Journal of Teacher Education. v32, n3, 14-17, May-June 1981.

Ratsoy, E.W. *Characteristics and Instructional Practices of Alberta Teachers in 1968-1969.* A Research Study. Edmonton, Alberta: The Alberta Committee on Educational Studies, 1970.

Ratsoy, Eugene W., Nelly McEwen and Brian J. Caldwell. Skills of Beginning Teachers and Perceived Effectiveness of Preparation Programs. Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1979.

Rebore, Ronald W. Personnel Administration in Education: A Management Approach. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1982.

Renihan, Pat. *Certification for Principals: Weighing the Pros and Cons.* The Canadian School Executive. 3-6. June 1984.

Rogers, Carl R. Freedom to Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969.

Runions, Ted. *Mentorship Programming for the Gifted High School Student.* Special Education in Canada. v5, n4, 28-30, Summer 1983.

Runions, Ted and Elizabeth Smyth. *Mentorships for the Gifted and Talented.* Canadian Education Association Newsletter. 5, Nov. - Dec. 1985.

Sackney, Larry E. *Administrative Dilemmas of the Principal.* The Canadian Administrator. v20, n3, December 1980.

Sadownyk, Janice L. *Orientation of Beginning Nurse Educators.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1983.

Sheehy, Gail. Passages. New York: Bantam Books, 1977.

Sistrunk, Walter E., Rebecca O. Love, Patricia D. Sistrunk, James R. Thompson, Jnr. and Herbert M. Handley. *Investigations of Supervisory Behavior: A Symposium.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 238 203, 35p. Nov. 1983.

Speizer, Jeanne J. *Review Essay Role Models, Mentors and Sponsors: The Elusive Concepts.* Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society. v6, n4, 692-712, Summer 1981.

Stallings, Jane. *Implications from the Research on Teaching for Teacher Preparation.* In Ian E. Housego and Peter P. Grimmett(eds). Teaching and Teacher Education. University of British Columbia: 161-179, 1985.

Szekely, George. *The Artist and the Child - A Model Program for the Artistically Gifted.* Gifted Child Quarterly. v25, n2, 6-12, Spring 1981.

Temmen, Karen. *A Research Study of Selected Successful Women Administrators in the Educational Field. Draft.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 224 089, 100p. 1982.

The Canadian Education Association. *The Supervision of Teaching.* Report of a CEA Seminar Held at Montreal, November 1-3, 1978.

Thomas, Russell E., Patricia Murrell and Arthur W. Chickering. *Critical Role of Value Development.* National Association of Student Personnel Administrators. NASPA Journal. v20, n1, 3-13, Summer 1982.

Turner, Lorene Everett. *Toward Understanding the Lived World of Three Beginning Teachers of Young Children.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Alberta, 1984.

Tyson, Lynne and Herman Birnbrauer. *Coaching: A Tool for Success.* Training and Development Journal. v37, n9, 30-34, Sept. 1983.

van Zwoll, James A. School Personnel Administration. New York: Meredith Publishing Company, 1964.

Veenman, Simon. *Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers.* Review of Educational Research. v54, n2, 143-178, Summer 1984.

Wetherell, Nancy. *A High School Gifted Program: Staffing Makes It Work.* G.C.T. n2, 44-45, Mar.-Apr. 1983.

Wildman, Terry M., Jerry A. Niles and Ruth A. McLaughlin. *Virginia Beginning Teacher Assistance Program. The Colleague Teacher Component.* Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Eductional Research Association, San Francisco, April 16-20, 1986.

Williams, Martha. *Educational Strategies for Learning to Learn from Role Models.* Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, August 23-27 1982. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 223 145, 57p.

Willis, Hal and Judith Dodgson. *Mentoring of Canadian Women in Educational Administration.* The Canadian Administrator. 25(7), April 1986.

Yoder, Janice D. and others (not named). *Mentors: A Debt from Present to Future Generations.* Paper Presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association (90th. Washington, DC, Aug. 23-27, 1982). ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 223 944, 8p. 1982.

Zey, Michael G. *Mentor Programs: Making the Right Moves.* Personnel Journal. v64, n2, Feb. 1985.

APPENDIX A

Letter to Superintendents from Researcher and Advisor

Dept. of Ed. Admin.,
University of Alberta,
Edmonton,
Alberta,, T6G 2G5.
7 October, 1985.

Mr. X. XXXXXXXXX
Superintendent,
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
Alberta, XXX XXX.

Dear Mr. XXXXXXXXX,

I am a Ph.D student in the above department and I am seeking access to beginning teachers employed by you. I have enclosed a copy of a letter from my advisor, Dr. E.W. Ratsoy, in support of my request .

My interest lies in how beginning secondary teachers deal with problems in their first teaching year and to whom they turn for assistance. I am looking for three teacher categories:

a) teachers who completed their first teaching year in June, 1985;
b) teachers who began their first teaching year in September, 1985;
c) interns who began their internship in September, 1985.

Information related to the purposes of the study will be collected primarily by means of questionnaire distributed to 120 beginning teachers (40 in each of the above categories). In addition, a follow-up interview will be conducted with fifteen of these respondents.

If you are willing to cooperate with me in this study, I ask you to provide me with a list of the names and addresses of teachers and interns in your jurisdiction who fall into the above-mentioned categories. Also, I request your permission to contact these beginning teachers for the purposes of the study.

I would be pleased to provide details of the study should you desire them. I may be contacted by telephone at my home in Edmonton. The number is 4370225.

Sincerely,

John Carruthers.

University of Alberta
Edmonton
Canada T6G 2G5

Department of Educational Administration
Faculty of Education
7-104 Education Building North, Telephone (403) 432-5241

October 11, 1985

Mr.
Superintendent

Dear

Mr. John Carruthers is a Ph.D. student in the Department of Educational Administration and a particular interest of his thesis topic is the identification of difficulties faced by beginning teachers and the means they employ to cope with these difficulties. The topic is a particularly timely one in view of the initiation of the internship for teachers in Alberta. Mr. Carruthers' study will be confined to the region of the province roughly falling within an eighty kilometer radius of Edmonton.

I recommend the study to you and your colleagues and ask that Mr. Carruthers be granted access to beginning teachers and teacher interns who are willing to participate in the study.

Sincerely yours,

Eugene W. Ratsoy
Professor of Educational
Administration

EWR/rp

APPENDIX B

Letter to Principals with Study Outline for Beginning Teachers

Dept. of Ed. Admin.,
University of Alberta,
Edmonton,
Alberta, T6G 2G5.
21 November 1985.

Principal,
XXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXX

Dear Principal,

With the encouragement of Mr.XXXX, Superintendent, I am seeking your approval to approach XX.XXXXXX in order to ask her to participate in my doctoral study.

I know how busy principals are - I am a retired high school principal from Australia - so I can appreciate the demand I am making on your generosity in asking you to read the enclosed brief description of the study. If you are prepared to allow me access to the named teacher, I would appreciate your giving her the study description.

Sincerely,

John Carruthers

Problems Faced by Beginning Teachers -
And How They Dealt with Them

Doctoral Study by John Carruthers

Thirty-five superintendents were asked for permission to approach beginning teachers in their jurisdictions and for a list of such teachers and their whereabouts. All superintendents approved the study and their cooperation produced a list of more than two hundred teachers with less than two years experience. A random selection was made to construct a sample of forty teachers from each of the following areas: urban, suburban, rural.

Three teacher categories were used:

A - teachers who started teaching in September, 1984
B - teachers who started teaching in September, 1985
C - interns who started their internships in September, 1985

All participating teachers will be asked to complete a questionnaire (probably 30 - 45 minutes). About fifteen of the 120 teachers in the sample will be asked to grant an interview. I expect to be in your area sometime in December when I will seek your cooperation in my study.

This brief outline is to advise you of the nature of my study and to invite you to consider becoming a participant in it. I look forward to visiting your school and I hope that I can secure your cooperation.

Dept. of Educational Administration,
University of Alberta.
November, 1985.

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire - Beginning Teacher Survey

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

BEGINNING TEACHER SURVEY

by

JOHN CARRUTHERS

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

SUPERVISOR: Dr. E. W. RATSOY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

NOVEMBER 1985

BEGINNING TEACHER SURVEY

Many writers have suggested that a significant number of teachers meet with great difficulties in their first year of teaching. Other beginning teachers seem to complete their initial year of teaching without meeting undue trouble. This study is being done to find out the nature of the difficulties beginning teachers encounter and how they deal with these difficult circumstances.

Your cooperation is being sought in order to increase our knowledge about beginning teachers in Alberta. You are invited to reflect on your own initial teaching year. Were there any critical events? From whom was help sought? You are assured that your anonymity and the confidentiality of your answers will be preserved.

TEACHER CATEGORIES

a) Teachers who completed their first teaching year in June, 1985;

b) Teachers who started their first teaching year in September, 1985;

c) Interns who started their internships in September, 1985.

Which of the above categories best describes you?

Please check one a..... b..... c.....

Please note, that except for a confirmatory question at the start of Section A, for the rest of the questionnaire, interns should regard themselves as teachers who started their first teaching year in September, 1985.

Those respondents who have not completed their first year of teaching, please answer questions which relate to first year experiences as meaning from the first school day in September, 1985 until yesterday, the day before you completed the questionnaire.

SECTION A: PERSONAL AND FIRST SCHOOL DATA

2 c c

Please fill in the blanks as required. — — — 1

1. Please confirm here your teacher category from the previous page: a)..... or b)..... or c)..... 5
2. What was your age when you started teaching?..... 6, 7
3. Are you male or female? .....(male).....(female) 8
4. At what institution did you complete your teacher training program? 9
5. What is your major area of specialization?..... 10, 11
6. What is your second area of specialization?..... 12, 13
7. What is your third area of specialization?..... 14, 15
8. What was your major teaching field in your first year of teaching?..... 16, 17
9. What was your second teaching field, if any, in your first year of teaching?..... 18, 19
10. What was your third teaching field, if any, in your first year of teaching?..... 20, 21
11. How many teachers, including you, taught at your school in your major teaching field in your first year of teaching?..... 22
12. How many teachers, including you, also taught in your second field, if any, in your first year of teaching?..... 23
13. How many teachers, including you, also taught in your third field, if any, in your first year of teaching?..... 24
14. Economic Background of Students:

    On the following scale, 1 indicates low income, 3 indicates middle income and 5 indicates high income. In the main, what was the income of the families that the majority of your first students came from? Please circle one position on the continuum.

    Family Income

    Low 1 2 3 4 5 High 25

Sections B to G are to be answered in the same way. The significance of the number scale is given at the start of each section. Please circle in the first column the number which best indicates the **degree of your felt need for help,** (assistance desired). In the second column, please circle the number which best indicates the **degree to which the need for help was met,** (assistance provided).

3

SECTION B: ADJUSTMENT TO THE COMMUNITY

c c

To what degree did you feel a need for help with each of the following concerns which might be faced by beginning teachers in relation to their communities?

To what degree did you actually receive help with each of these concerns in your initial teaching year?

0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great

4...Very Great

	Degree of assistance desired	Degree of assistance provided	
1. Finding accommodation	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	26. 27
2. Becoming informed about services available in the community (health, education, transportation, religious denominations, shopping etc.)	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	28. 29
3. Becoming acquainted with the surrounding district	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	30. 31
4. Meeting residents of the community	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	32. 33
5. Making friends with people outside the school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	34. 35
6. Meeting people my own age	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	36. 37
7. Other perceived needs relating to your adjustment to the community (please specify)			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	38. 39
.....			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	40. 41
.....			

SECTION C: ADJUSTMENT TO THE SCHOOL SYSTEM (SCHOOL DISTRICT, DIVISION, OR COUNTY)

4

C C

To what degree did you feel a need for help with each of the following concerns which might be faced by beginning teachers in relation to their school systems?

To what degree did you actually receive help with each of these concerns in your initial teaching year?

0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

	Degree of assistance desired	Degree of assistance provided	
1. Becoming informed about the rules, regulations and policies of the school system	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	42, 43
2. Becoming acquainted with sources of assistance in the school system (consultants, student services, teaching materials, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	44, 45
3. Becoming familiar with the curriculum and the texts to be used	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	46, 47
4. Assessing the value of central office personnel as sources of help	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	48, 49
5. Other perceived needs relating to your adjustment to the school system (please specify)			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	50, 51
.....			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	52, 53
.....			

SECTION D: ADJUSTMENT TO THE SCHOOL

5 c c

To what degree did you feel a need for help with each of the following concerns which might be faced by beginning teachers in relation to their school?

To what degree did you actually receive help with each of these concerns in your initial teaching year?

0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great

4...Very Great

	Degree of assistance desired	Degree of assistance provided	
1. Becoming acquainted with the layout of the school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	54. 55
2. Meeting the principal's expectations of beginning teaching staff	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	56. 57
3. Accepting the philosophy of the school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	58. 59
4. Learning school routines (reports submitted, records kept, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	60. 61
5. Forming a link with an experienced teacher who would act as an information source and/or an advisor, at least in the early days	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	62. 63
6. Becoming acquainted with the rest of the staff	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	64. 65
7. Making friends with members of staff	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	66. 67
8. Becoming informed about the aims of my teaching subject(s)	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	68. 69
9. Achieving the aims of the school (and its departments, if any) for my teaching subjects	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	70. 71
10. Seeking demographic information about the students who attend the school (racial and religious components, family incomes and occupations, disadvantaged children etc.)	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	72. 73

11. Other perceived needs relating to your adjustment to the school (please specify)			6
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	74, 75
.....			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	76, 77
.....			

SECTION E: ADJUSTMENT TO THE CLASSROOM

C C

To what degree did you feel a need for help with each of the following concerns which might be faced by beginning teachers in relation to the classroom? — — — 2

To what degree did you actually receive help with each of these concerns in your initial teaching year?

0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

	Degree of assistance desired	Degree of assistance provided	
1. Becoming acquainted with the contents of the classroom	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	5, 6
2. Dealing with lack of equipment	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	7, 8
3. Implementing the school philosophy in the classroom	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	9, 10
4. Knowing how my own particular program fits in with the total school program	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	11, 12
5. Dealing with class organization problems within permitted school limits	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	13, 14
6. Dealing with class discipline problems within permitted school limits	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	15, 16
7. Teaching in what I felt was a substandard classroom	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	17, 18
8. Evaluating student progress	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	19, 20

7

9. Preparing school reports (report cards, attendance, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	21 22
10. Becoming acquainted with the students I teach and their backgrounds	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	23 24
11. Being given opportunities to see experienced teachers at work	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	25 26
12. Having a procedure available which encourages me to discuss problems caused by my inexperience	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	27 28
13. Being given a teaching load which reflects my training and lack of experience	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	29 30
14. Being given opportunities to grow professionally through the provision of in-service programs	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	31 32
15. Having a variety of teaching methods to deal with the different needs of the students	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	33 34
16. Organizing time to cope with matters such as lesson planning, corrections, report writing and other clerical tasks	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	35 36
17. Lack of congruence between theory and practice	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	37 38
18. Other perceived needs relating to your adjustment to the classroom (please specify)			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	39 40
.....			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	41 42
.....			

SECTION F: ADJUSTMENT TO THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

8 C C

To what degree did you feel a need for help with each of the following concerns which might be faced by beginning teachers in relation to the field of education?

To what degree did you actually receive help with each of these concerns in your initial teaching year?

0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great 4...Very Great

	Degree of assistance desired	Degree of assistance provided	
1. Having confidence in my role as teacher	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	43. 44
2. Feeling comfortable interacting with all school staff	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	45. 46
3. Feeling that parents recognize me as a competent teacher	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	47. 48
4. Becoming an active member of the teachers' professional organization	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	49. 50
5. Becoming knowledgeable about the services offered by the Alberta Teachers' Association.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	51. 52
6 Having access to professional reading	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	53. 54
7. Other perceived needs relating to your adjustment to the field of education (please specify)			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	55. 56
.....			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	57. 58
.....			

SECTION G: ADJUSTMENT TO THE NEW ROLE

9 c c

To what degree did you feel a need for help with each of the following concerns which might be faced by beginning teachers in relation to their new role?

To what degree did you actually receive help with each of these concerns in your initial teaching year?

0...None 1...Little 2...Moderate 3...Great

4...Very Great

	Degree of assistance desired	Degree of assistance provided	
1. Accepting the restraints placed on teachers by society	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	59. 60
2. Coping with the demands of superordinates, e.g., principal	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	61. 62
3. Accepting my place in the hierarchical structure of the system	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	63. 64
4. Coping with feelings of frustration	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	65. 66
5. Coping with feelings of inadequacy	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	67. 68
6. Coping with feelings of failure	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	69. 70
7. Coping with feelings of rejection	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	71. 72
8. Coping with apprehension related to the adequacy of my professional preparation for teaching	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	73. 74
9. Other perceived needs relating to your adjustment to the new role (please specify)			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	75. 76
.....			
.....	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	77. 78
.....			

SECTION H: PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED AND ACTION TAKEN

10 c c

— — 3

You likely experienced some problems or challenges in your first year as a teacher. Please list three significant events associated with your first year of teaching which caused you concern or made excessive demands on you.

1. ..... 5, 6

.....

2. ..... 7, 8

.....

3. ..... 9, 10

.....

4. Did you consult one or more persons about each of these incidents?

   a. The first-mentioned incident?..... How many persons?..... 11, 12

   b. The second-mentioned incident?..... How many persons?..... 13, 14

   c. The third-mentioned incident?..... How many persons?..... 15, 16

5. If you consulted anyone about these three significant incidents, what position(s) did this (these) person(s) occupy? (e.g. fellow teacher, department head, neighbour, physician)

   a. First-mentioned incident..... 17

   b. Second-mentioned incident..... 18

   c. Third-mentioned incident..... 19

6. What was (were) the outcome(s) of this (these) consultation(s)?

   a. First-mentioned incident..... 20, 21

   .....

   b. Second-mentioned incident..... 22, 23

   .....

   c. Third-mentioned incident..... 24, 25

   .....

SECTION I: ATTEMPTS AT SOLVING PROBLEMS

11

This section deals, in a more general way, with the availability of help during your initial teaching year and whether or not you availed yourself of any assistance that could have been had.

c c

1. Was there one special person you felt comfortable going to when you had a professional problem? 26
2. If there was more than one, how many were there? 27
3. How many of these special persons were employees of your school system? 28
4. What positions did this (these) special person(s) hold?
   ..... 29, 30
5. How many of these special persons were not employees of your school system? 31
6. What was your connection with this (these) special person(s)? (e.g. friend, neighbour, relative, retired teacher) 32, 33
   .....
   .....
7. Could you talk to this (these) special person(s), whether inside the school system or not, about personal problems as well? 34
   In general terms, what was the nature of these personal problems? (e.g. health, employment, family or marital problems)
   .....
   ..... 35, 36
8. Even when there was no immediate concern to be dealt with, did you interact informally with your helper(s)? 37
9. What was the nature of this interaction? (e.g. conversation, social outing, sports outing)
   ..... 38, 39
   .....

12

10. How was (were) the link(s) with your helper(s) formed?

.....

40

.....

11. How often did you seek help from this (these) special person(s)? Please circle one position

Never/almost never	1
About once per month	2
About once per week	3
About twice per week	4
Almost every day	5

41

12. Please list five qualities which attracted you to your helper(s).

a. 42, 43

b. 44, 45

c. 46, 47

d. 48, 49

e. 50, 51

13. Please list five qualities which you think helpers for beginning teachers ought to have if they are not mentioned in your previous answer.

a. 52, 53

b. 54, 55

c. 56, 57

d. 58, 59

e. 60, 61

13

SECTION J: RENAMING THE HELPER-BEGINNING TEACHER ASSOCIATION

This association between a helper and a beginning teacher can be referred to as a **mentor** association. I would like to know if you consider that your helper was a **mentor.**

For the purposes of this study, **mentors** are persons who possess several of the following qualities, with at least one of the qualities coming from Part I.

PART I

— A person you feel you can trust and who trusts you;

— A person you feel you can tell your problems to both professional and personal without fear of rejection or threat to your professional advancement;

— A person you respect and who respects you;

— A person you like and who likes you.

PART II

— A person who has qualities and/or skills that you do not yet possess but, in time, would like to;

— A person who has achieved a position you would like to have eventually, even if it is only to be a stepping stone to a more desired position;

— A person whose opinions you value;

— A person whose value system resembles your own;

— A person who encourages;

— A person who is politically aware of the local situation, that is, understands the system.

1. On the following scale, please circle one of the positions to indicate your rating of your association with a helping teacher in your first year of teaching. This association could have been formally or informally arranged.

Mentor Association Scale

Did not exist 0 1 2 3 4 Was fully operational

C C
— — — 4

5

2. What advantages did you derive from your initial teaching year mentor association which you have just rated?

.....

.....

.....

.....

6. 7

8. 9

10. 11

12. 13

14

3. What were the negative aspects (disadvantages) of the same mentor association?

..... 14. 15

..... 16. 17

..... 18. 19

..... 20. 21

4. If you had a mentor association with someone in the year(s) before you began teaching, what advantages did you derive?

..... 22. 23

..... 24. 25

..... 26. 27

..... 28. 29

5. And what disadvantages did you experience as a result of the association?

..... 30. 31

..... 32. 33

..... 34. 35

..... 36. 37

6. Using the same Mentor Association Scale as before, please record your rating of the mentor association, if any, that you had prior to becoming a teacher

Mentor Association Scale

Did not exist 0 1 2 3 4 Was fully operational 38

7. If you had a mentor prior to becoming a teacher, did this mentor association continue during your initial teaching year?..... 39

SECTION K: MENTORS, THEIR SOURCE AND USEFULNESS

15 C C

If you have **ever** had a mentor, please answer this section and Section L. If you have **never** had a mentor, please check the following space (. . . . .), ignore Section K and please answer Section L.

Please supply the following information about your first year teaching mentor (FYM) and your pre-teaching mentor (PM).

1. How old approximately was (were) your mentor(s) when the association(s) began? .....(FYM) .....(PM) — 40. 41 / 42. 43

2. The sex of your mentor was.....(FYM) .....(PM) — 44

3. If your mentor (FYM) was a member of staff, please indicate the position held by your mentor

   ..... — 45

   If you had a mentor (FYM) who was not a member of staff, please indicate your association with the mentor. (e.g. neighbour, uncle, retired teacher, friend) — 46. 47

   .....

4. What is your opinion about the source of mentors relative to the school you did your initial teaching in?

   Please circle one position on the continuum.

   The mentor should be someone who is

   Inside the system 1 2 3 4 5 Outside the system — 48

SECTION L: MENTORS — JUDGEMENTS AND SPECULATIONS

C C

1. What is your opinion regarding the advantage to a beginning teacher of having a mentor? Please circle one position on the continuum. — — — 5

   No use 0 1 2 3 4 Great use — 5

2. In the first column, please circle the number which indicates best your opinion regarding the degree to which you wish you had received help in your initial teaching year, (the ideal), from the given list of people.

   In the second column, please circle the number which best indicates your opinion regarding the degree to which you did receive help, (the actual), from the same people.

16

0...No help 1...Little help 2...Moderate help 3...Great help

4...Very great help

	Degree of assistance desired (Ideal)	Degree of assistance provided (Actual)	
a. Fellow teacher at my school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	6. 7
b. School administrator at my school, e.g. principal, department head	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	8. 9
c. School counsellor at my school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	10. 11
d. Non-certificated employee at my school e.g. secretary, nurse	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	12. 13
e. Non-certificated employee at the central office, e.g. accountant, secretary	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	14. 15
f. Superordinate at the central office, e.g. consultant, supervisor, superintendent	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	16. 17
g. Teacher not at my school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	18. 19
h. School administrator, e.g. principal, department head, not at my school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	20. 21
i. School counsellor not at my school	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	22. 23
j. Non-teacher friend/relative	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	24. 25
k. Retired teacher	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	26. 27
l. Retired administrator	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	28. 29
m. Other, please specify	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	30. 31
n. Other, please specify	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	32. 33
o. Other, please specify	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4	34. 35

Thank you for your cooperation

APPENDIX D

Interview Schedule

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

First Teaching Year and Mentors

(To be shown to the interviewee prior to the interview)

Thank you for granting me this interview. I would like to assure you that your anonymity and the confidentiality of what you say will be respected.

The interview has five purposes:

1. To enlarge upon some critical events which you have already identified in your first teaching year;
2. To discuss briefly qualities that you believe would be to the advantage of beginning teachers if possessed by mentors;
3. To outline the advantages and/or the disadvantages you have experienced as a result of your mentor association in your first teaching year;
4. To have you comment on your attitude to mentor associations in your own first teaching year and in the first teaching year of new teachers in general; and
5. To further investigate whether teachers should have a mentor in their first teaching year.

Question 1.

You have identified one significant event in your first year of teaching which caused you difficulty or made undue demands of you.

a) When the event occurred, what was your immediate reaction?

b) Why did you judge the event to be significant?

c) I know you sought help. Did you feel embarrassed or comfortable about confiding your problem to your helper(s)?

d) What qualities caused you to select this (these) helper(s)?

e) Were you influenced by the position held by any helper?

f) Were you received as you would have liked to have been received by your helper(s)? (Probe).

g) What help did you get? Was it as much as you wished?

h) How would you deal with the same problem now? Please comment on how your thinking might have changed due to increased experience, the outcome of your mentor association or any other relevant cause.

i) Did you discern any unexpected responses from your helper(s) concerning this difficulty? If so, what were they?

Question 2.

You have identified a second significant event in your first year of teaching which caused you difficulty or made undue demands of you.

a) In what way or ways, if any, did you and your helper(s) respond to this second critical event that was/were different from your responses to the first event?

b) Did you discern any unexpected responses from your helper(s) to your second difficulty?

Question 3.

a) Were your feelings and responses any different in your third difficulty from those experienced in your first two difficulties?

b) Did you discern any unexpected responses from your helper(s) to your third difficulty?

Question 4.

a) What qualities do you think a mentor should have?

b) In what ways do you think the benefits, if any, of your first teaching year mentor association could have been improved?

c) In what ways do you think the disadvantages, if any, of your first teaching year mentor association could have been reduced or even avoided?

d) Do you think that school jurisdictions should appoint teachers to act as mentors either formally or informally? Did you (Do you) have a formally appointed teacher supervisor?

e) Do you think all beginning teachers should have access to a mentor?

f) How important do you perceive the opportunity to choose the mentor?

g) Either from experience or speculation, would you encourage new teachers to seek a mentor? Why?

h) Have you an opinion regarding same sex and cross sex mentoring?

i) Is the age of the mentor important?

j) One scale for measuring the development of a mentor association was devised by Bova and Phillips. Where on this scale do you think your association with your mentor(s) reached?

1. Entry 2. Mutual building of trust 3. Risk taking 4. Teaching of skills 5. Professional standards 6. Dissolution

k) How would you advise a beginning teacher to set about finding a mentor so that the new teacher would derive the greatest benefit?

Thank you very much for your kindness in this further participation in my study.

VITA

John Carruthers

Born: Glasgow, Scotland, 28 November, 1925

Post Secondary Education

Glasgow University:	B.Sc.	1948
Jordanhill Training College:	Teacher's Certificate	1949
Chisholm Institute of Technology:	B.Ed.	1982
University of New England:	M.Ed.Admin.	1983
University of Alberta:	Ph.D. Prov. Cand.	1984
University of Alberta:	Ph.D. Cand.	1985

Teaching Experience

Subjects taught: General elementary subjects; English; Latin; French; mathematics; science.

Where taught:

Royal Air Force	1945-1947
Glasgow	1949-1955
Island of Bute	1955-1960
Melbourne	1960-1974

Administrative Experience

Teacher-in-Charge. St. Mungo's Academy Annexe. Glasgow. Scotland	1949-1955
Senior Master. Korrumburra High School, Victoria, Australia	1970-1974
Relieving High School Principal, Victoria, Australia	1975-1978

Memberships

Educational Institute of Scotland	1949-1960
Victoria Secondary Teachers' Association (broken)	1960-1978
Victoria High School Principals Association	1975-1978
Victoria Mathematical Association	1960-1970
Victoria Science Teachers' Association	1960-1970
Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration	1982-

Interests

People Music Travel Languages